

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Page

INTERRACIALISM AS SOCIAL EDUCATION¹

W E AMERICANS are becoming more acutely conscious of the "race problem." It is a rare family gathering, church social, or athletic event at which no mention is made of "race," and at which anti-democratic sentiments are not expressed. Ordinarily, it is felt that "something should be done about the race problem."

Actually, there is no such thing as "the race problem." Nor, for that matter was there a Detroit "race riot" during the week of June 20, 1943. There is no "race problem" because race is fundamentally a biological phenomenon, and the riots, and the prejudices which generated them, have virtually no reference to biology.

No one can deny the reality of the problems alluded to, but one must clearly recognize in dealing with them that the *race problem* is a catch-phrase connoting all social problems relating to ethnic groups. Thus not one social problem is denoted, but virtually every social problem arising from the relations between human groups is involved.

Popular discussion ordinarily hinges on superficial, peripheral problems (such as the reality of racial odors and the propensities of groups toward stealing and cheating) rather than on such fundamental, core questions as those of the ethnic and status structuring of American society, and of the mind-sets of its components. These facts (like those determining the nature and quality of sin) are functions of definition and of cultural valuation. The definitions allow degrees and levels of approach and withdrawal in the social relationships between ethnic individuals.

Negroes and whites actually occupy caste positions which are maintained by appropriate de-

grees of social distance, and fortified by relevant stereotypes. Obviously these positions are functions not of biology but of culturally ordained valuations. If one cannot know members of another group directly and empirically, he knows them (insofar as it is necessary for him to know them) as the stereotype portrays them. Thus the white gentile may know Jews as a variable group of interesting human beings with whom he goes to school and plays football, or as money-grabbing, evilly cunning "sub-humans."

Of course one may experience another individual not as a person, but as a thing, or as a category. Such categorical perception (illustrated by the small white girl pointing out a tiny colored girl as "the little maid") only functions to bolster up the "racial" stereotype. It is important, if democracy is to persist, that "racial" stereotypes be broken down and ultimately destroyed completely. If, as Americans, we are genuinely interested in the preservation of democracy and of the essential dignity of human personality, we must be equally concerned with the destruction of "race hatred." We must concern ourselves with the constructive evaluation of ethnic individuals in terms of their actual personal attributes. Race hatred can be partially altered (granted the continuance of our present social order) by means of the dissemination of anthropological and sociological facts, and through the experience of stereotype-shattering interracial fellowship.

FACTS regarding the problems of race have been known and diffused for at least fifty years, and they have allowed a solid scientific refutation of racism. But facts by themselves have not been enough, for race hatred is basically irrational. Unreason occupies such a large place in men's minds, and it supplies such emotional satisfactions that appeals to reason based upon anthropological facts have been doomed to quick corrosion by the bitter acids of race hatred. In the long run, as the development of science

¹ This statement is contributed by an assistant professor of sociology in Wayne University, who is also research director of the Council of Social Agencies of Metropolitan Detroit.

demonstrates, when fact competes with myth, myth is ultimately vanquished. Unfortunately we, and the minorities labeled races, live in the "short run." Racism persists because socio-psychologically groups don't know each other, and hence fear each other, and because economically exploitation of ethnic groups is profitable to a calculating segment of the population. Fear can be broken down by individuals coming to know others personally, and exploitation can be demonstrated to be actually unprofitable to the whole community.

Interracial fellowship works as a means to the above-mentioned ends and it constitutes a practical demonstration of democracy. It is a reasonable approach to the "race problem." How far can one go with interracialism? The extent to which it can be practiced is limited by the institutional arrangements extant in a community. At least fair-minded citizens can organize to alter what Wendell Willkie so aptly calls "a fascist attitude of mind."

IN Detroit, interracialism has already had a start and is gaining momentum. The Greater Detroit Interracial Fellowship under the chairmanship of Dr. Benjamin Jay Bush, former president of the Detroit Council of Churches; the Interracial Citizens' Committee headed by the Reverend Charles Hill of Hartford Avenue Baptist Church; the Greater Detroit Council on Fair Employment Practices of which Clarence W. Anderson is executive secretary; the Detroit Council of Churches Interracial Committee—these and many others are demonstrating the practicality of interracial activities. One may anticipate future expansion of these activities. The next step in the direction of interracial democratic action should be the formation of a Council of Interracial Bodies. Such a Council could integrate social action, co-ordinate activities to prevent duplication, funnel social forces into democratic directions, and stand as a bulwark against the rising tide of racism.

NORMAN DAYMOND HUMPHREY

BASIC TRUTHS OF DEMOCRACY

L. KERRISON and R. O. Hughes in their discussion of a positive philosophy for the social studies in *Social Education*, February, 1944, have struck at the heart of modern education. In the world struggle of fascism and democracy, the social studies are the core of the curriculum.

The current controversy over educational

methods cannot be dissociated from the transcending question: Is it possible to discover social truth? Essentially, this is the issue over which the "progressives" and "traditionalists" are wrangling, and it is involved in the growing argument of what constitutes a "liberal" education.

In his recent book,¹ Alexander Meiklejohn takes the positivist position. He goes after John Dewey's philosophy with hammer and tongs. In the realm of higher education, Robert Maynard Hutchins stirred the hornets' nest by insisting that President Eliot committed an educational "crime" when he introduced the elective system at Harvard. According to Hutchins, it is the faculty which must create the curriculum, insisting that the students accept it.² Mark Van Doren has joined the melee with a sort of compromise position, in the final analysis assuming that to meet the purposes of the liberal arts, we must get back to the trivium and quadrivium of medieval days.³

The controversy simply adds up to the fact that educators find themselves in the healthy condition of attempting to discover a rational approach to the problems which confront them.

WHAT does all this mean to the ordinary teacher? It means that there is no immediate necessity of joining any of the particular "schools" of educational thought. Unquestionably, each partisan in the contest has made a valuable contribution.

Meiklejohn, for instance, has undoubtedly contributed much by showing that real democracy consists of a great deal more than individuals sitting around a conference table, "talking things over." Meiklejohn pointedly and correctly raises the question of whether the pragmatic approach is today an adequate one for education. However, it may be said that, in "obliterating" John Dewey's philosophy, there is the danger that some educators may lose the essence of Dewey's great contributions to American education. Dewey has shown that it is impossible to teach democracy in the classroom without practicing it.

"Freedom" and "experience" are words which Dewey has had a great share in ingraining in

¹ Alexander Meiklejohn, *Education Between Two Worlds* (New York: Harper, 1942).

² Robert M. Hutchins, *Education For Freedom* (University, Louisiana: Louisiana University Press, 1943).

³ Mark Van Doren, *Liberal Education* (New York: Holt, 1943).

the fiber of American education. Nothing is more ludicrous than the so-called teacher who drills "red-blooded Americanism" into his or her charges. This is a realization for which the youth of this nation owe John Dewey profound gratitude. However, when we get out of the realm of methods, and into the realm of what is to be taught, there is cause to give the positivists a good measure of credit. If facts can be presented to substantiate a given social position, then teaching proceeds democratically, and conclusions are reached. The writer found that the overwhelming majority of social studies teachers desire that students learn the method of investigation and fact-seeking.⁴

It is certain that if our fact finding leads nowhere, we will have "our feet firmly planted in mid-air." Today, there are too many teachers who hold this atmospheric position. The result inevitably is that their students are arriving no place. For students to leave school today without well-formed opinions relative to the social, political, and economic problems which confront this nation and the world, is disastrous. The security of democracy rests in no small measure on the degree to which American school youths are learning to grapple with—and solve—the pressing issues of our day.

The writer will therefore have to take his stand with I. L. Kerrison, who believes that to be real teachers, educators must be leaders. They must be going somewhere. And it is high time that we teachers know where we are going, and that we do something about it. Objectivity there is, to be sure, and the objective approach can only result in ferreting out certain basic facts upon which the very foundation of democracy rests. Some of these facts are:

1. A growing democracy means freedom from want or poverty for a greater number of people.
2. To gain freedom from want for more people,

it may be necessary to curb the power of a minority in the interest of the welfare of the majority.

3. Regardless of the mistakes of individual members, labor unions have been responsible for bringing greater security and freedom to people who otherwise would not have it.

4. The theory of race supremacy is a lie. History and anthropology show that it is utterly impossible to attribute the superiority of a civilization to racial factors.

5. Efforts to eliminate religion by force have met universal failure. Freedom of conscience and the separation of organized religion from the state are cornerstones of the democratic way of life.

6. Man cannot live without politics. Men will work in groups to achieve the aim of the greatest good of the greatest number; if they languish in political ignorance, they will become the slaves of him who uses Machiavellian politics as his weapon.

7. In no sense does democracy mean lack of order. When the majority has spoken, it becomes the responsibility of the minority to accept the decision and go along with it.

8. The minority reserves correctly to itself the basic right to criticize policy, but when a major decision has been made, the minority must accept it until the proposition is again brought up for the review of all the people.

These are some of the tenets upon which rests all for which the American flag stands. There is no longer any doubt about it. To resign ourselves to the opposite of each of these tenets, is to claim that democracy is a miserable failure, and that Hitler holds the truth. In this time of crisis, teachers cannot shrink from the truth. To their nation, American teachers owe the responsibility of teaching the facts of democracy in the classroom and in the community.

WILLIAM H. FISHER

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⁴ William H. Fisher, "Thesis Abstract on the Teaching of Controversial Subjects," *College of Education Record*, University of Washington, January, 1944.

Some Recent Illusions About Peace and War

Joseph S. Roucek

WHEN the First World War ended, suffering humanity pinned its hopes for the reconstruction of the world on permanent foundations of peace.¹ The war had been fought to end war, and mankind placed its faith in that phrase. The new order, symbolized by that magic word democracy, was to justify the agony of four years of misery and fighting.

But the war spirit in Europe and Asia did not die after 1918. In Germany and Italy two corporals began to seek solution of mankind's difficulties in violence, sadism, and terror. Concurrently, the glittering phrases of constitutionalism and parliamentarism soon proved illusory in the early breakdown of democratic machinery in Poland, Lithuania, and Yugoslavia, and later in Germany and elsewhere. Economic nationalism was revived in all states in spite of the many proclamations of the internationalists and of the League of Nations proving its unsound basis. Up to 1930 the world had planned on peace and security in spite of the numerous danger signals cropping up constantly in the national and international scene, which showed that peace was not as secure as it had appeared on the surface.

These undercurrents came to a head on September 19, 1931, at ten o'clock at night, with a sudden "explosion" along the tracks of the South Manchurian Railway, well inside Chinese territory, when "shots" were fired at Japanese soldiers who were "innocently" marching down the tracks. That same night 600 Japanese troops massed to storm the adjacent Peitaying barracks of China's northeastern army. By dawn the barracks had been burned, more than 300 of the defenders had been killed, and 9,000 or 10,000

others put to flight. It was the end of summer in the fourth year of Showa, reign of "Radiant Peace." From the embers of the Peitaying barracks came the sparks of the Second World War. They spread to Addis Ababa, to Barcelona and Madrid, set ablaze books in Berlin, workers' apartments in Vienna, churches in Prague, slums in Warsaw, and shops in Rotterdam; and reached London, Belgrade, Odessa, Beirut, Manila, and Pearl Harbor.

ILLUSION OF PEACE THROUGH DIPLOMACY

BACK of the long, incredible tale of the folly, blindness, and madness of these years lay the desperate desire for peace of the Western democracies and the United States, and the hope that peace could be safeguarded by signing covenants, treaties, and international guarantees.

This belief that everything will work out for the best if given enough time led the "statesmen" of the period to sign all sorts of treaties and reached its apotheosis in the Pact of Paris in 1926. This treaty, signed by twenty-six nations, the United States included, eliminated war as an instrument of politics—supposedly. In reality, however, it was the first pact which legalized warfare of a sort—that is, the Pact of Paris put the stamp of international approval on "defensive wars." This negated the whole purpose of the pact, for there has never been a war in the history of the world which has not been a "defensive" war. So, in terms of its practicality, the Pact might as well have outlawed thunderstorms.

Closely connected with this philosophy was the belief that politics could be reduced to discussions, treaties, and other nonviolent methods. The League of Nations was set up but refused the power which was needed to make it effective;

The author of this analysis of some popular beliefs that influenced foreign policies and international relations during the years between the wars is contributed by a professor of political science and sociology at Hofstra College, Hempstead, Long Island.

¹ Edward Hallett Carr, *The Twenty Years' Crisis 1919-1939* (New York: Macmillan, 1940), is a brilliant analysis of the failure of the intense desire for peace to square with the realities of international politics of the years between the World Wars.

yet the belief seemed to be that if the League condemned an action the mysterious force of international "opinion" would force the criminal to stop. The following examples of this policy in action may be cited from the recently released "White Book" on American Foreign Policy from 1931 to 1941. These are extracts from American state papers published by the Department of State. The first instance relates to the time of the Japanese invasion of Manchuria. (The italics do not appear in the original.)

The Japanese Government professed a desire to continue friendly relations with China and denied that it had territorial designs in Manchuria. However, Japanese military operations continued. By the end of 1931 Japan had destroyed the last remaining administrative authority of the Government of the Chinese Republic in South Manchuria. . . . The United States Government notified the Chinese and Japanese Governments on January 7, 1932 that it could not admit the *legality* of any situation *de facto* nor did it intend to *recognize* any treaty or agreement entered into between these Governments which might impair the treaty rights of the United States or its citizens in China; that it did not intend to *recognize* "any situation, treaty, or agreement" which might be brought about by means contrary to the obligations of the Kellogg-Briand Pact [Pact of Paris]. In pursuance of this policy the puppet government established by Japanese arms in Manchuria a few weeks later has not been recognized by the United States.¹

The next example is from the same book, only this time the crisis is over the Italian invasion of Ethiopia.

Italy continued the conquest of Ethiopia [in spite of our pleas that she maintain her treaty obligations]. By the spring of 1936 Italian military forces had overrun most of Ethiopia and on May 5 Addis Ababa, the capital, fell to the invader. . . . the United States never *recognized* Italian sovereignty over Ethiopia.

We do not question the intentions of those who wanted to reduce international relations to peaceful processes and legalistic terminology. But we can be definitely concerned about the extreme hopefulness in the effectiveness of these utterly ineffective measures, based on a kind of mythical belief that the nonrecognition of the Japanese conquest of Manchuria would, sooner or later, and somehow or other, force the Japanese to withdraw their troops from the conquered territories and offer their profoundest apologies to the Chinese. This myth is, unfortunately, responsible for much of the difficulty we find ourselves in today.

¹ *Peace and War: United States Foreign Policy 1931-1941*, published by the Department of State. (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942), p. 5.

FICTION OF THE FUTILITY OF WAR

THE Wilson group talked to the people in idealistic terms but acted pragmatically. The result was a deflation of the pumped-up idealism which left the post-war generation with a sense only of how stale and unprofitable were all wars and all attempts to organize a peace.² Certain American intellectuals, the "leaders" of our thought and expression, found escape in the theme of futility. The war had been futile; the boys had died in vain, man was a begotten animal—and God an illusion. This was fuel to the isolationist fire. If nothing was of any use any more, then surely it was foolhardy to "meddle" in the unhappy affairs of Europe. We believed that we could keep free from the involvements and evils of war by pacifism and isolationism. How many American teachers of international relations were not engaged in preaching that "never again" must we engage in another war?

The result was twenty years of sedulously cultivated revulsion against Europe and its works, a revulsion all the stronger because based upon an attitude hallowed since the early days of the Republic. Most Americans piously thanked fortune they were not Europeans and settled down to kibitz on the poker game of power politics abroad. The feeling of tolerant contempt was best summed up in the deeds of that idol of American boyhood, Superman, who once kidnapped a European dictator and an opposing general and set them to fisticuffs in front of their troops, with results so ludicrous that the soldiers on both sides laughed and went home.

Being hostile to war, which was glibly said "never to decide anything," and confusing the proper study of defense with the excesses of militarism, most American intellectuals and molders of public opinion succeeded in deflating militarism and in the idealization of a pacifistic ideology to a most successful point. We debunked war and impressed our youth with the idea that war is a sordid affair, benefiting no one, and an undesirable remnant of our barbarian past. Since all military aspects of war were "immoral" aspects of our life, we simply shunned any discussion of any aspect of the subject.

The most serious aspect in this educational philosophy was the nihilistic attitude toward the First World War and the ethics of American

² John D. Hicks, "Why We Fought—A Reconsideration," *Social Education*, VI:200-204, May, 1942; Howard R. Anderson and Elaine Forsyth, "Historical Perspective on our Teaching of the First World War," *ibid.*, VI:109-114, March, 1942.

participation in that endeavor.⁴ We refused to interpret that conflict realistically as a war for the balance of power in the world, as preventive action undertaken against the contingency of a German victory in 1917. The war was considered as so much diplomatic history, concerned with the collation and digestion of documents, with who sent a letter from the foreign office of this and that country to another country, or what the ruler of a state said on such an hour or a day, rather than a fundamental study of international relations in terms of all aspects of power, and particularly military politics. We concerned ourselves too much with the "debunking" of the diplomatic causes of the war and of the numerous slogans used during the last war, such as "the war to end wars," the "war for democracy," and others connected with Wilson's policies. The unmasking of the guilt of diplomats and propagandists convinced a whole generation of American students of the "stupidity" of the last war and determined their mind, in turn, never to fight again for any reason whatever. Quite a number of American professors made their reputation by specializing in the *Kriegschuldfrage*; they gleefully pointed out time and time again that Germany was not guilty of starting the First World War, or no more so than other powers, and hence implied that we fought for a cause which was "immoral." This made the teachers of modern history and of international relations conscience-stricken about the Versailles Treaty—and our participation in the war.

THE BOGEY OF FOREIGN PROPAGANDA

ONE of the rallying points of the American liberals in the first post-war decade was the word "propaganda." We had been drawn into the last war, they said, by British propaganda. We were the unhappy victims of propaganda of all sorts—slaves to the mass mind. To put it baldly, the argument was that England and France somehow or other seduced American public opinion away from sound isolationism. The American public mind was eventually so weakened that it could not resist all the foreign propaganda and eventually decided to abandon neutrality. Since, however, we were fooled once, we must "never again" be fooled by foreign propaganda. Hence anything unpleasant and "not wished for" became eventually labelled as "propaganda." But by this desperate effort to

avoid being "propagandized," we fell victims to another set of fictions and illusions. We failed to remember that effective propaganda must be rooted in the American soil, that all the arguments for American entry into the First World War were not devised in London and Paris, and that the doctrine of isolationism was not born in Berlin. These myth-mongers could not see that there were great and genuine issues of national policy at stake in 1917—as there have been since the rise of Nazism.

The net effect of this propaganda complex was an extraordinary technique for avoiding war. If we had been drawn into the last war by propaganda based upon the sinking of our ships, the way to prevent war in the future was to avoid getting ships sunk. All we needed to do was to write a law and call it the "neutrality" law—and the United States would forever be neutral. It seems never to have occurred to these Houdinis that democracy might be faced with greater dangers than the loss of its ships; that, indeed, the sinkings in 1914-1917, as well as the sinkings before 1941, might be symptomatic of a threat to freedom that all free peoples must bravely face.

THE MYTH OF ECONOMIC STRANGLING

THE intellectuals of the twenties and thirties fell into a number of other errors, of which several are pertinent to the present diagnosis. The higher institutions of learning resounded with the discussion of the need for *Lebensraum*, lack of raw materials, population pressure, high tariffs, lack of gold, and staggering war reparations—all of which held a compelling importance as propaganda weapons for dictator nations. These half-truths have touched a responsive note in the mind of the average fair-minded American and Britisher, undermining their moral stamina and their opposition to the steps taken by the aggressive states, since such aggressive progress appeared to be, after all, partly if not fully justified.

One of the most popular myths of the United States, for two decades after 1918, was the legend—of Marxist origin—that international bankers sucked the nation into a war which was none of its business, that United States participation in that war had been a mistake, which must never be repeated. The work of the Nye committee, the defaulted war debts, the failure of the League of Nations, the legend of the "merchants of death" all made for disillusionment, and out of that came the national attitude of cynicism

⁴ Alfred Vagts, "War and the Colleges," *Journal of the American Military Institute*, IV:75-76, Summer, 1940.

toward the world, expressed as isolationism.⁵

Another variation of this Marxian theme found a lot of consideration in many a popular textbook on international relations: that one of the basic causes of all wars has been the inability of the "have-not" nations to secure raw materials. The tacit premise is that the alleged lack of "free access for all nations to the raw materials of the world" has been a cause of trouble and forced the aggressor nations to fight. This simply is not true. The whole assumption was just a reflection of Hitlerite and pre-Hitler German laments. The lack of "free access" was a German invention. Its purpose was not to obtain raw materials but to achieve domination over some colonies supposedly producing such materials.

There was no such lack of "free access to raw materials" in our time (up to the present war). Every individual or nation was able, on the whole, to buy any raw materials in any country—even during the period of our neutrality laws. While sobbing about lack of raw materials, Germany itself increased her imports of such products to peaks never before attained. In fact, some of the very people now campaigning for "free access" not so long ago complained about too much "free access." They pointed out, for instance, and quite rightly, that Japan ought not to have free access to iron or oil.

True, some nations were too poor to buy much raw material, but this economic problem certainly did not affect Germany, where the war originated. There are, in fact, several fallacies underlying the fiction of "have" and "have not" nations. One is the assumption that the territories of an empire can be exploited for the exclusive benefit of the mother country and that the mother country gives nothing in return. Imperial Spain was ruined by that policy. Another fallacy is that abundant natural resources are necessary to prosperity and happiness of nations. But what about such states as Switzerland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden—to name only the countries having no colonial possessions (before Hitlerism)? Who heard them crying out for *Lebensraum*, whining for special economic concessions, or engaging in cutthroat competition?

There are additional fictions connected with this *Lebensraum*. While we heard from Rome, Berlin, and Tokyo about the need for a *Lebensraum*, the very same nations were bribing

their people to breed like rodents. Thus we can have no sympathy with a viewpoint that Japan was a "have-not" country, driven to despair by lack of food and raw materials within its own frontiers. The fact is that Japan after the Restoration was able to double its population, elevate the standard of living and build up a modern industry. Furthermore, Japan had sufficient food within its own frontiers, and Tokyo was never denied the opportunity to buy raw materials.⁶ For instance, although Japan possesses no cotton, it was able by peaceful competition to take away Great Britain's former position as the world's leading exporter of textiles. And it accomplished this feat with cotton purchased not only in the United States but also in the British possession of India. If Japan had been governed by men with the outlook of Manchester liberalism the problem of assuring its legitimate claim for support and a rising standard of living for its people would not have been insoluble. But the feudal military elements in the Japanese ruling class were strong, and these elements were not interested in anything so prosaic as gradually improving Japan's position in a warless world.

Herr Funk, Germany's Minister of Economics, once quoted with approval Colonel Lindbergh's assertion that "when the rich get too rich and the poor too poor, something happens." This explanation of the Second World War has long been a part of Nazi and Fascist propaganda, but it hardly stands up against the facts. It is Japan that is attacking China. Is the average standard of living in Japan below that in China? Was Italy a poorer country than the Ethiopia and the Albania that she invaded and seized? If Germany was a "have not" country in 1938, were Czechoslovakia and Poland "have" countries? The claims of the Nazis to economic "equality" have always been fraudulent; they want to dominate, exploit, pillage, and enslave.

Unfortunately, the acceptance of this Marxian ideology by many of our liberals led to the conviction that the "haves" were under a moral and political obligation to share possessions with the "have-nots"—and to adopt "appeasement."

MYTHICAL HORRORS OF VERSAILLES

TOO many American teachers and professors of international relations and history, as well-meaning persons and Americans, found a theme song for the explanation of all the post-

⁵ "A great part of that legend was associated with the position of the House of Morgan," reported in *Time*, in its issue of March 22, 1943, in commenting on the passing of J. P. Morgan.

⁶ Hugh Byas, *The Japanese Enemy* (New York: Knopf, 1942).

war world ills and the disillusionment of our highly moral aims by putting the Versailles Treaty on the tom-tom. All through the period from 1920 to 1939 we in the United States and Great Britain were obsessed with a "guilt complex" towards Germany because of our "severity" at the peace table. This myth rested on the assumption that since Germany was not wholly guilty of beginning the war, her punishment was unjustified.

However, when Germany was in power she was not so considerate of those she conquered; witness the treaties of Bucharest and Brest-Litovsk in which she completely crushed the Rumanian state and forced an ignominious peace on disorganized Russia. After viewing these rigorous treaties, one is more liable to reach the conclusion that if Versailles erred, it was on the side of leniency; and of one thing we may be sure—compared to the peace which Germany had planned for the Allies had they lost, Versailles was a tea party. This myth received almost universal credence in the United States due to its brilliant exposition by several outstanding American historians. It was very cleverly used by the Nazi leaders to keep the democracies doubting the justice of their cause, and while the latter pondered the morality of Versailles the German armies marched.

One of the most potent weapons of German propaganda has been the ascribing of all the ills of the world and the Second World War to the Treaty of Versailles. It is conveniently forgotten that the First World War broke out with no Treaty of Versailles to precede it, and with a Germany not defeated but victorious and rapidly acquiring wealth.

Four lies in particular bulked large in Hitler's propaganda against the Versailles Treaty—lies that came to be accepted as truth not only by the Germans but by millions of Americans as well.⁷

First, that the armies of the *Vaterland* had not been defeated but "betrayed," "stabbed in the back," by the parliamentary cowards, stock-exchange vultures, Jews, and "money changers." In all good faith many American scholars, as well as Germans, repeated what has since become the slogan of Hitler's propaganda: "Germany was not defeated on the field of battle. She was betrayed by her civilians, by Max de Bade, by Ebert, by Scheidemann, by Erzberger, who stabbed the German army in the back by asking for an armistice." This legend, repeatedly

given the lie by Ludendorff and Hindenburg, who were begging the Reich Chancellor, from September 1918 on, to ask for an immediate armistice, has become one of the most misleading myths of our last two decades. The fact of the matter is that Germany was defeated in every military sense of the word. Furthermore, revolution broke out in Germany—three weeks after the request for an armistice; it was not until November 7 that the Majority Socialists demanded the Kaiser's abdication, and not until November 10 that the republic was proclaimed. Hence it was military defeat, not internal revolution, that caused Germany's collapse.

Second, that Hindenburg did not surrender unconditionally but ceased hostilities on fixed terms is another historical myth proclaimed by Hitler. In an exchange of notes—October 8, 12, and 14, 1918—President Wilson made clear that no arrangement could be accepted that did not provide "absolutely satisfactory safeguards and guarantees of the maintenance of the present military supremacy of the armies of the United States and the allies in the field." A second opportunity to choose between war or surrender was afforded the Germans by the presentation of the armistice terms; it set down provisions that were the essence of unconditional surrender. In fact, the Germans even at that time did not denounce Wilson's assurance of a "just peace."

Third, Hitler's claim that Germany was not permitted to plead her case at the Peace Conference, the vengeful Allies imposing intolerable terms without a hearing, is another historical lie. The Germans were handed the full text on May 7, 1919, with the statement that an answer would be required by May 21. Berlin prepared arguments and counter-proposals on May 10, 12, 13, 16, 22, and 23. On May 20, an extension of the time was asked and granted, and on May 29, the complete German counter-proposals were handed in and straightway given to the press.

Fourth, the story of reparations cannot be told without a smile, so plainly does it show up the infantile illusions of the victors in the last war. The Nazi propaganda has never ceased claiming that the reparations of 40 billion dollars doomed Germany to "shame, slavery, eternal impoverization and centuries of compulsory labor." Many self-deluded Americans are still unfortunately guilty of maintaining this fiction of reparation. The fact is that up to 1924 Germany had made payments in cash and kind to the amount of \$2,880,200,000; under the Dawes plan she paid \$1,886,860,000, and under the Young plan \$685,916,000. But against this outgo, Germany

⁷ George Creel, "German Lies About Versailles," *American Mercury*, LVI:54-62, January, 1943.

received \$5,258,000,000 in the form of loans between 1924 and 1930; during the same period, foreign capital invested 700 million dollars in German enterprises, 80 million dollars in German bonds, and 500 million dollars in German real property. Thus Germany paid \$4,462,976,000 on account—and received \$6,438,000,000.⁸

HITLER'S SPURIOUS CLAIMS

ALL in all, then, it is legend that the German people surrendered to Hitler because he promised to rescue the country from the debasement forced on her by the Versailles Treaty. But historical facts prove that the peace conditions which burdened Germany most heavily, chief among them the reparations payments, had already been liquidated by Hitler's predecessors.⁹ Other clauses, such as the arms limitations, were well on the way to liquidation by the time Hitler came to power. Similarly, it is a legend that Hitler was given the government of Germany because behind him surged a mass movement. For it is likewise historical fact that, at the moment Hitler was called to power, his movement which once before had fallen from the high point of the Munich putsch into the insignificance of a small sect, was for the second time in the process of dissolution. In fact, the combined membership of the opposing parties was numerically far greater. It was only the possession of governmental power that gave Hitler the chance of destroying his political opponents; he had been unable to do it before.

We might note also in this connection Article 231 of the Versailles Treaty—the so-called "War Guilt Clause."

The Allied and Associated Governments affirm and Germany accepts the responsibility of Germany and her allies for causing all the loss and damage to which the Allied and Associated Governments and their nationals have been subjected as a consequence of the war imposed upon them by the aggression of Germany and her allies.

German publicists have succeeded in impressing many of our respectable historians with their distortion of the meaning and intent of this clause of the Treaty, and in so doing have not

only convinced the German people but also many well-meaning people in the Allied countries that Article 231 placed sole responsibility for the war upon Germany. It does nothing of the sort. Germany was obliged to admit responsibility for war damages caused by her aggression. Of the fact that Germany was the first power to invade foreign territory in 1914 there has never been any question. But the wording of this article gave rise to an unfortunate controversy, unfortunate because it served to raise a false issue. If Germany's liability rested on her responsibility for the outbreak of the war, then that liability would disappear in the event that her guilt could be disproved. Without arguing about the proper construction to be placed on Article 231, such became in brief the gist of the German argument. It may suffice to point out that the subject of reparations was covered by the Allies' reservation to Point VIII of the Fourteen Points which was incorporated into Wilson's note to the German Government of November 5, 1918:

... By it [restoration of invaded territories] they [the Allies] understand that compensation will be made by Germany for all damage done to the civilian population of the Allies and their property by the aggression of Germany by land, by sea, and from the air.¹⁰

ENGLAND'S public opinion, under the influence of such liberals as J. M. Keynes,¹¹ considered the Versailles Treaty as the cause of all the political and social evils of our time. Hitler was viewed as an exaggerated but in the last instance excusable reaction against this destructive document. Some thought that Germany would become reasonable again if concessions were made; others believed that it was possible to come to an agreement with Hitler, despite his un-English behavior, and especially if this agreement could be made at the expense of others, particularly at the expense of communistic Russia or of the allegedly too great influence of France on the European continent.

The present war throws new light on all the illusions that have been described—in fact reveals them to be illusions. They take their place among the factors that need to be considered as we build a new peace and a new set of international relationships.

¹⁰ *Foreign Relations of the United States*, 1918, Supplement I, vol. 1, p. 469. The inclusion of certain categories of damage, particularly of pensions, in the reparations section of the Treaty of Versailles (Part VIII, Annex I) has been alleged as a breach of the undertaking toward Germany contained in the pre-armistice exchanges.

¹¹ *The Economic Consequences of the Peace* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1920).

⁸ It is necessary to note that these figures differ in different studies. The present figures have been taken from Creel. But the fact remains that Germany actually made handsome profits from the reparations. A good account is John Wheeler-Bennett and Hugh Latimer, *Information on the Reparation Settlement* (London: Allen and Unwin, 1930).

⁹ Joseph Bornstein and Paul R. Milton, *Action Against the Enemy's Mind* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1942), p. 79.

What Is Your Map IQ?

J. Granville Jensen

MAPS are the most important tool of geography. Indeed it has been said that "If you cannot map it, it isn't geography!" However, because the use of maps is not limited to geographers it is well that we as teachers should consider a few qualities of maps and our knowledge of certain basic principles that every teacher ought fully to understand.

The great value of the map lies in the fact that it so represents a section of the earth's surface that the eye can view it as a whole, much as a pilot flying high over a state sees the entire landscape with its pattern of roads, fields, forests, and streams spread out below him. With this broad view it is possible to see relationships between geographic conditions and the activities of man which otherwise might be overlooked. It is for this reason that the results of field work are nearly always set down on maps for analysis.

Let us say we are interested in the distribution of Rhode Island industry. As a result of field study a state map would be drawn showing the location of each factory or industry. Along the river valleys the symbols for industry will be closely congregated in a unique pattern which might not be noticed in the field. So the map leads the student to ask why the factories are clustered in and along the valleys. One's geographic knowledge would suggest several hypotheses to be checked by the field notes: (1) that the factories were originally set up near water falls for power and are still there; or (2) that in the valleys the land surface is flat and suitable for industrial sites in contrast to the too-hilly upland. So the map has helped to organize the isolated facts gleaned from field study in order that their relationships can be studied. This is the purpose of maps.

We may summarize by saying that maps repre-

sent the earth's surface or a part of it; and that they help to make clear certain facts and relationships of geography which could not otherwise be clearly seen and understood. For example, a map may bring out the distribution of mountains, climates, political divisions, ocean and land trade routes, possible routes of invasion, and so on, but each map should develop only one idea. Acceptance of this principle explains why so many maps appear in newspapers these days, while the variety of maps reflects new purposes.

WHAT should the average teacher know about maps? Certainly he need not be able to draw his own maps, but he should be able intelligently to *read* maps in newspapers, atlases, and books as well as to read road and air maps. He should know what a map is; that there are different map grids as well as different kinds of maps; he should understand the meaning and use of the scale; he should be able to use a map when traveling. This article does not pretend to explain fully how to acquire these several skills, but it can be said with certainty that skill and confidence in map reading comes only from practice in actual use of maps.

Everyone should know that only a globe represents the land and sea masses of the earth in their true shape and relationships. Yet even the globe leaves to one's imagination the task of visualizing the real distances, the mountains, swamps, deserts, and forests. Most of us use the globe far too little.

WHY THE VARIOUS PROJECTIONS?

DURING this so-called "global war" it has become more obvious that maps must be used to learn where places are located. It has been discovered that different types of maps are necessary—and also that they exist. For instance, it was discovered that the maps in common use did not show certain earth relationships as they really are. They did not, for instance, make clear that a plane flying directly north from New York over the North Pole to Chungking would travel only 7,500 miles. This is not to say that

This review of some basic factors in map making, written for teachers outside the geography field, is contributed by a professor of geography in the Rhode Island College of Education.

there is anything wrong with the usual maps, such as the ubiquitous Mercator—only that they are not designed for this purpose. To show the relationships of world land areas about the North Pole the *polar azimuthal* projections or a globe must be used. Consequently, when these polar routes of flight became news, magazines like *Time* and *Fortune*, as well as newspapers, began to publish strange-looking "new" maps of the world to show land relationships about the North Pole.

To this stimulating influence of the war we owe the development of those whom I like to term "journalistic cartographers" such as Richard Edes Harrison of *Fortune* Magazine, whose excellent maps attempt to present an eye view of earth relationships. Especially commendable is the honest way in which the projections are explained, telling each one's merits as well as its shortcomings. There is no question but that Mr. Harrison and the several other "journalistic cartographers" are contributing a great deal to the public knowledge of maps and the theaters of war.

The real problem in maps arises because it is not possible to represent correctly the round face of the earth as a continuous flat surface any more than the cover of a tennis ball can be laid out flat in one piece. Every flat map is constructed on a grid of parallels and meridians developed either by projecting the global grid onto a flat surface or by mathematical computations. Each different grid is known as a projection and has a name such as *Mercator's* projection, *Alber's* projection, or *Mollweide's* projection. Students of geography and teachers of geography ought to be able to distinguish the several common projections and know their qualities, but the average citizen or teacher probably needs only to know that there are several different projections.

There is *no* flat map that correctly represents all earth relationships. Every projection distorts the earth in one way or another. Conversely every map projection has some special merit—some quality which it represents correctly or some purpose which it best serves. The *Mercator* projection, as is well known, greatly enlarges areas near the poles, but it has the valuable quality of showing true compass directions as straight lines and of showing small areas in their true shape—two factors which make it valuable for navigation. The *north-polar azimuthal* projections, as already noted, have the quality of showing relationships around the North Pole. On azimuthal maps every straight line drawn from the center

is a great circle or shortest route and the projection can be drawn with its center at any desired point to show the great-circle routes radiating from any city. Other projections, such as the *Albers* or *Bonne*, are valuable because they show the size of land masses in true proportions, and still others like the *polyconic* projection are valuable because the amount of distortion is negligible when used for small areas.

There is a *right* projection for every purpose. Thus, if the purpose is to show the distribution of crop areas in the world, an equal-area map must be selected such as *Mollweide's* or *Goode's homolosine*; if transpolar air routes are to be shown the *north-polar-azimuthal-equidistant* projection is called for. Select the map to fit the purpose.

LANDSCAPE AND SCALE

ON ONE of these several grids the map maker draws his map to bring out the facts and relationships which his purpose demands. Political maps which emphasize political division perhaps are most common unless one wishes to consider road maps for this honor. Physical maps today are widely used because they emphasize the basic factors of landscape—the land over which armies must advance. While the common method of showing elevation is by color shades, the newspaper maps today are popularizing the use of hachure lines and of pictorial mountain sketching. Every teacher should appreciate that both coloring and sketching are generalized and do not exactly represent the actual landscape; the colored maps especially are misleading. For instance, green may represent land from sea level to 500 feet—it is all colored the same—yet the landscape may be very rough and hilly since the only qualification is that it be 500 feet or less in elevation.

The contour map is perhaps most widely used by trained observers, as it is the most accurate type of map available for most areas of the United States as well as many foreign lands. On them every hill and valley is represented by lines showing elevation above sea level. To use them some practice is needed, but it is not unduly difficult to acquire the necessary skill. (At present such maps of restricted areas are not available due to the war.) Many other types of maps are available: maps of trade routes, air routes, crop distributions, and pictorial maps of all kinds, to show rainfall and sunshine, etc.

Every teacher should understand the scale, since one must know how large a section of the

earth's surface is represented by the maps. The scale, printed on all worth-while maps, tells whether an inch on the map equals one mile on the earth's surface or whether it equals a shorter or greater distance, such as 100 miles. Obviously the scale makes a great difference. The correct use of the scale makes it possible to estimate closely the distance between two points and consequently the travel time that would be needed.

THE proof of map-reading skill is the ability to use maps when traveling. For this, one must know how to orient his map—that is to place the map in proper relationship to the land surface. One way is to use a compass, but the easiest way when traveling is to use a road map: just turn the map until the road symbol on the map is running exactly the same way as the actual road. Now a hill appearing near the road will be indicated and perhaps named at the corresponding place on the map. You can thus learn the names of features as you travel, making your trip much more interesting.

These basic facts of map understanding should be passed on to pupils through much use of maps in the classroom, not only in geography and history but in many other subjects, such as English, reading, science, and even arithmetic. I would even go so far as to say that, in connection with travel opportunities for our pupils, the school ought to provide some actual outdoor practice in the use of maps so that they may be really able to use maps to enrich their travel. Such experiences might well include simple sketching. It should be stressed that the use of maps means studying them, not just looking at the general picture. The map alone is not enough. It must be analyzed! Here scientific geography begins.

For most class work there is probably no jus-

tification for drawing map grids, but every geography class ought to have much practice in making maps on a prepared outline to show certain things; pupils should be encouraged to use initiative in devising new ways of representation. For instance, they can make maps of the world's oil production or reserves, population, routes of invasion and battle lines, or climates. All these are valuable as learning devices and as training in methods of presentation.

Today there are countless good maps in newspapers and magazines as well as in inexpensive atlases. We should use them, study them. Whenever a new place comes into the news it should be looked up on a map. We need more than ever to develop the map habit. The fact that we do not know where places are is not so very important, but when we blithely skim over unknown places when reading newspapers and books without even a vague idea where they are and yet make no effort to find out, it is time to check our map IQ! It has been truly said "that the very best education is derived from doing things one's self."

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I believe that it will be the consensus of opinion that the irreducible minimum of what should be obtained by the United States as the outcome of the victory in which it will share must be the practical certainty that in the world of the future, the United States will be secure—safe from the threat of successful attack by any power, or by any combination of powers; fully assured that its own free institutions will suffer no jeopardy from foreign sources; and enabled, by reason of peace, prosperity, and political and social stability in the rest of the world, to develop its own national resources and its trade in such a manner as to make possible that advance in social conditions and that rise in living standards which the vast majority of our people seek. For we have, I believe, at long last, learned the lesson that we cannot grow richer if the rest of the world becomes poorer; and that the surest guaranty of our prosperity is the prosperity of others. . . . (Sumner Welles. Address to the Foreign Policy Association, New York, October 16, 1943).

Assembly Programs Dramatize Social Studies

David E. Weingast

RECENT trends in the lecture and adult-education fields have been pointing to the substitution of integrated, closely related programs for individual, isolated lecture presentations. Temporarily, at least, program directors and managers seem to have accepted the idea that a series of events built around a basic theme can produce an effect never reached by the discrete offerings which formerly constituted platform fare in this country. It scarcely needs to be said that the new tendency parallels the steadily heightening interest in international affairs of the past few years.

On the suggestion of the principal, the Assembly Council of Newark's Weequahic High School last year undertook to employ this approach in the organization of its assembly programs. Taking, as their basic theme, "We Are the United Nations," the students and teachers who comprise the council sought to block out a connected series of assembly events which would help interpret the world struggle to the school population. It was established that both foreign and domestic problems related to the war were to have a place in the enterprise. Each unit in the series was to contribute to an understanding of the world struggle by dealing honestly and realistically with both peoples and issues; social and economic aspects were to be stressed at the expense of the romantic.

After extended discussion the council settled upon the following subjects for auditorium presentation: (1) What Is America? (an introductory program to set the theme for the series); (2) China; (3) The Negro in America; (4) Italy;

(5) The Soviet Union; (6) Poland; and (7) Latin America.

Customarily our student body, because of its size, had attended assemblies in three sections. Any single program was regularly presented but once, and was witnessed by only one group. In the hope that the sum of the new programs would constitute a "course" in problems related to the war, the council arranged for three showings of each unit in the series. Thus everybody in the school would see each program. This provision was regarded as especially valuable for those students who take a minimum program in social studies and who, accordingly, might be missing any systematic instruction in current issues.

WITH the apportioning of topics among the teachers the project was launched. No one who has ever staged a dramatization requires an enumeration of the trials that attended our efforts. Everything happened that could have happened. Special difficulties arose from the unusual conditions of the experiment. We were putting on a cycle of programs instead of portraying isolated events; the developmental idea had to be maintained; an ambitious production schedule had to be adhered to. Furthermore, allowances had to be made for certain legally required observances. Thus the Newark Fire Department, in accordance with long tradition, had its day, while recognition of Washington's and Lincoln's birthdays was incorporated into the major series of programs. The over-all plan had to be sufficiently flexible to allow for appearances by guest speakers and the musical organizations of the school.

The council had made the recommendation that each program constitute a vigorous, incisive treatment of some aspect of the basic theme, and that each unit stand on its merit as sound dramatization. Taking the council's injunction to heart, the various writers and directors extended themselves to meet these standards. Liberal use was made of both the radio and "living newspaper"

The presentation of current affairs through dramatization for school assemblies is described by a teacher of social studies in the Weequahic High School, Newark, who serves as chairman of the Assembly Council responsible for the programs.

techniques. The latter, a conspicuous achievement of the Federal Theatre, involves the highlighting of dramatic incidents, the interpolation of appropriate musical sequences, and the utilization of unorthodox lighting effects to convey a sense of power and movement. The school was witness to a novel, sometimes startling, handling of some of the important questions of our day. Every effort was made to insure the historical accuracy of the subject matter, and nowhere was truth knowingly compromised for dramatic effect.

THE students who participated in the undertaking had many rewarding experiences. The opening program, "What Is America?" was given five request performances in the community in addition to the three scheduled showings in school. The play, "Free Italy," written in its entirety by two fifteen-year-old boys, was published by the Council Against Intolerance in America in its monthly magazine, *American Unity*. "This Is Our Ally," the production on Russia, was featured in a rally sponsored by Russian War Relief before 2000 citizens of Essex County. A corps of ardent youngsters enjoyed invaluable opportunities to act in plays of significant social content.

Toward the middle of the year it became apparent that there were available insufficient assembly periods to accommodate the entire series as originally projected. Accordingly, the dramatizations on Poland and Latin America were laid over for the present school year. In the meantime, from both teachers and students ideas for additional programs were coming in. Suggested topics included "Great Britain," "France," "The World We Want," "Labor and the War," and "Price Control." The range of the next series of assemblies had been envisaged.

In the current school year the unexpected transfer of several key faculty members caused temporary complications. Because our plans had

been drawn well in advance, however, it was possible to restore our production schedule by placing the completed scripts in the charge of new teachers. After a late start we were once again underway. The first of the major presentations in the new group, "Great Britain," was acclaimed as a moving tribute to our friends across the sea. Some observers pointed out that among our second-year students especially, this program generated an intensity of response not often noted in school convocations. In rehearsal and slated for early presentation are productions on labor, the post-war world, and France, with the certain prospect of a good backlog of material for next year. Slowly our council has been mastering the technique of integrating, within the framework of social studies subject matter, the ramified elements that constitute effective dramaturgy.

SURVEYS of faculty and student opinion revealed strong approval for continuing the plan. There was generous praise for the "original" and "courageous" treatment of live issues, and general agreement that the new approach had both quickened interest in the school assemblies and provoked extraordinary classroom discussion. To be sure, there was sharp dissent from particular statements expressed in the several presentations. Moreover, a minority of students complained that the programs were "too serious," "too repetitious," and "too episodic." But even these disgruntled observers conceded that the dramatizations had arrested their attention. No one asserted that he had been bored. Perhaps one valid index of the enthusiasm evoked by the project is the fact that two teachers who had staged programs asked for additional assignments.

The generally happy reception accorded the first year's efforts demonstrated that the school assembly can be a valuable medium for the systematic, forceful presentation of social studies material.

There was never a period in the history of this country of ours when it was more essential that the people of the United States understand fully all of the implications in the problems in foreign relations with which their government is confronted. Unless they obtain that understanding, unless they are enabled to see at least the pattern of what their government proposes, how can they intelligently determine for themselves what this country should strive in its own interest to see achieved after the war is won—how can they decide what responsibilities this country should assume, likewise in its own interest, in the years that lie ahead after the victory of the United Nations? . . . (Sumner Welles. Address to the Foreign Policy Association, New York, October 16, 1943).

Historical Fiction in Secondary-School Social Studies

Albert Silverman

THESE Historical Novels have taught all men this truth . . . that the bygone ages of the world were actually filled by living men, not by protocols, state papers, controversies, and abstractions of men" (Carlyle, on the Waverley Novels).—The use of historical fiction in history teaching is not new, but of late there is a growing awareness on the part of educators and historians of the profitable use to which fiction can be put in the field of the social studies. Virtually all the newer texts, especially in history, are equipped with lists of fiction; carefully selected and graded bibliographies are beginning to appear on the market; and, most important of all, the National Council for the Social Studies has bestowed its blessing upon this valuable adjunct to teaching.¹

What factors occasioned the delay in the acceptance of historical fiction? These may be said to be two-fold. In the first place, all educational progress is slow. It takes a long time for new ideas and procedures to percolate through to the classroom teacher. So it has been with historical fiction. In the second place, until recently historians, writers, and critics were themselves divided as to the merits of the case. Happily, the dust of conflict seems now to have subsided. As Ernest Horn states, "It is clear that the trend of opinion . . . is that the best examples of historical fiction do contribute materially to the reader's insight into past times."²

What are the values to be realized from the use of fiction? These may be stated as follows:

1. Depth, warmth, and dimension are given to historical events, bringing them into meaningful focus. At best, the history textbook is a

kaleidoscope—a variegated, changing pattern consisting of hundreds of separate facts and happenings tumbling furiously upon each other or else suspended in a vacuum. Fiction, when carefully integrated into the teaching program, infuses the sense of life into this pattern and holds up for close inspection and scrutiny the same facts and events against a warm, engaging, flesh-and-blood background.

2. Concepts are clarified, knowledge is increased, and thought stimulated. The pupil's power of discrimination is sharpened and that intangible but important something we call "sense of values" begins to take form. What, after all, is the aim of the social studies? Stated in the simplest of terms it is to give insight into human motivation. The history text alone can never achieve this goal.

3. A lifetime interest in and taste for history is created.

4. A delightful leisure-time habit is formed. Reading, it is generally held, is an end in itself.

5. The aim of education which seeks to develop the ethical character of the pupil is served and furthered. Sensitive and impressionable, the adolescent is fertile ground for the transplanting of the seed of idealism from the pages of his reading to himself. Carefully nurtured, this seed will germinate and, thus, the whole program of character training be effectively implemented.

6. Excellent opportunities for correlation are afforded. Outside the province of the social

¹ Hannah Logasa, *Historical Fiction Suitable for Junior and Senior High Schools* (Bulletin No. 1. National Council for the Social Studies, 1927. Rev. in 1930, 1934, and 1941 under the title *Historical Fiction and Other Reading References for Junior and Senior High Schools*. Philadelphia: McKinley Pub. Co. Pp. 192. \$2.20).

See also Ernest A. Baker, *A Guide to Historical Fiction* (London: Routledge, 1914) and Jonathan Nield, *A Guide to the Best Historical Novels and Tales* (New York: Macmillan, 1929).

² *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies* (New York: Scribners, 1938), p. 280. Horn's thoughtful discussion cites several related books and articles.

A teacher of history in the Baltimore Polytechnic Institute calls attention to values in historical fiction and offers suggestions for classroom use of such material.

studies, literature, in particular lends itself to the integrative scheme.

7. Social intelligence and a sympathetic interest in social welfare are created. After reading *Ramona*, President Cleveland took steps to correct the abuses described in the novel. Jacob Riis' *How the Other Half Lives*, and Charles Norris' *The Octopus* and *The Pit* were opening guns in the battle to clear the slums, curb the wild speculation on the commodity exchanges, and regulate the railroads. The Meat Inspection Act and the Pure Food and Drug Act were concessions to the widespread indignation excited by Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle*.

FROM the outset, teachers should apprehend that contemporary fiction is just as valuable for enrichment purposes as the simon-pure historical variety, for, perforce, current literature mirrors the customs, institutions, prejudices, and *mores* of its own period. Care, of course, must be exercised in the selection of titles. In this connection, Paul Klapper's dictum seems to be a good one. "If the novel," he writes, "does not do violence to the dominant color or the larger aspects of the life of an age, it makes a genuine contribution to the pupils' knowledge of history despite an occasional but soon forgotten error of fact.³ Novels in which characters and plot are merely silhouetted against rather than woven into the fabric of the historical background should be guarded against because the authors of such books are seldom at pains to capture the spirit of the times or to come to grips seriously and realistically with the past.

It would seem the part of good educational practice to look upon the reading of fiction as in the nature of an extra-credit project rather than a required exercise. Projects undertaken of the pupils' own volition are more likely to yield gratifying results than those made compulsory. A check of some sort upon the reading should, of course, be provided. An outline of the type that Logasa⁴ suggests, which the pupil fills in upon completion of each novel, is probably the best kind of check. In general, it is well to bear in mind that if we are to make the reading experi-

ence pleasurable we must take care not to impose onerous chores upon the reader. A form such as the following has the merits of brevity and informality while at the same time providing for an adequate accounting:

BOOK FORM REPORT

- A. Title and author of book
- B. Historical background
- C. Historical personalities delineated or mentioned
- D. Historical events described
- E. Summary of the plot
- F. Opinion

If the best reports are read aloud and posted on the bulletin board they will serve as a fillip to the ambition and curiosity of the other pupils. In schools boasting weekly newspapers, reviews of the masterpieces of historical and contemporary fiction can be a regular feature. A chart bearing the legend "Books We Have Read," listing the names of readers and the titles of the books read, is also a useful interest-sustaining device. Moreover, if the teacher will make himself familiar with the books on his list he will be in a position to plan his program in a manner best calculated to complement the regular classroom instruction. Thus, when the work of the class in American history has reached the exploits of John Paul Jones, the teacher may read aloud from James Boyd's *Drums* the vivid and gripping description of the battle between the *Bon Homme Richard* and the *Serapis*. Or, better yet, a pupil who has read the book can make a report at this point. In the same manner worthwhile discussion may be motivated by having brief reports on the capture of Vincennes in *The Crossing* by Winston Churchill, or on the tournament in *Ivanhoe*.

Teachers of history and English should meet periodically in order to keep the machinery of correlation in running order. Once the reading list has been discussed and approved, a uniform and synchronized *modus operandi* should be evolved. For example, in order to provide pupils with a double incentive, both departments might offer special credit for all or certain titles on the list. This plan has very definite appeal, for, although the pupil is required to write only one report, he is rewarded twice in the records as well—it is to be hoped—as once in his own satisfaction.

³ *The Teaching of History* (New York: Appleton-Century, 1926), p. 53.

⁴ *op. cit.* (1930 ed.), p. 15.

Local History and Local Manuscript Collections

John W. Ray
W. Francis English

I. THE CASE FOR LOCAL HISTORY

THE recent criticisms on the teaching of United States history have caused us to look at our own work with a scrutinizing eye, and to ponder over ways and means for improvement. Some of us gave the *New York Times* test to our classes in high school to discover that they scored higher than the college freshmen. While results are not as bad as the *Times* study would indicate, we realize, as we did before the study was made, that we need to do something to quicken the pulse of our instruction in history. What can we do to instill new interest? Perhaps a changed approach using methods that are new to the class might arouse new interest in the history lesson.

One of the puzzling problems is the fact that so many of our students have already acquired a dislike for history. They say that it is meaningless and dry. We must correct this attitude if we are to effect in the future better results than we are now getting.

The teaching of local history offers many opportunities for improvement, and especially for instilling an abiding interest in the subject. We have a fine chance to teach how history originates. The beginnings of our local community life, pioneer days, pioneer people, and many other topics can be taught from sources available in many communities. If students go back to the

earliest local newspapers and discover that the weekly news was much like that in our school paper, if they read in them and get a clear picture of early community life and the problems that confronted the people then, together with their attempted solutions, a new interest will arise in the class. The pupils will not feel that they are just repeating the course given in the preceding grade. They will begin to comprehend that history is not a distant, far away something, but it is a movie of the past and the actors were real folks.

The source method was a bit puzzling to the Committee of Seven. Lack of available materials was one of the reasons for the recommendation that a textbook be used, and that what source materials were available could be used to supplement the text. Local history is rich in sources. Some of it has been collected and placed in the library and museum. In a country so young much valuable material may still be found in the home library, where it will fall into disinterested hands and be thrown away unless we can arouse an interest to reclaim it.

IN Pennsylvania we are working through the Department of Public Instruction on a plan which may eventually have much to do to break down the dislike for history commonly found among our high school students. Junior historical clubs are growing up all over the state. They are chartered from Harrisburg and receive credentials indicating membership in the Pennsylvania Federation of Junior Historians. Under local management these clubs are guided by the state historian and his assistants. A director of clubs is working in the field. She visits all parts of the state in an effort to stir up interest in historical work, to seek out the people who may direct the work effectively, and to get them started in an interesting and meaningful approach to history. The clubs try to carry out a

The author of Part I, reminding us that local history has important values in history and social studies teaching, is principal of Academy High School, Erie, Pennsylvania, and author of *A History of Western Pennsylvania* (1941). The author of Part II, on local manuscript collections, is associate professor of history in the University of Missouri and director of the Western Historical Manuscripts Collection at that university.

definite program. Regular meetings are called and time is devoted to doing the regular historical work of the club.

What can be more thrilling work to junior high students than a trip to visit some of the nearby historical spots? Of course, just now, it is out of the question to go far, but we can at least take advantage of the places nearby. A pilgrimage to visit some spot which was important in the past, and in that historic atmosphere to have the old story told again to the boys and girls of today, should arouse new interest. Some communities are filled with historic places which receive too little mention in the classroom. Monuments, buildings, markers, roads, forts, blockhouses and many other historical things are available if we will use them.

It will be helpful in teaching local history if we can take the large, dull county histories and rewrite them. They were written for adults. They must be rewritten in the language of the junior historian. When this is done a textbook in local history will be supplied to serve as a guide in our study.

To summarize, local history should be valuable because:

1. It gives us a wonderful opportunity to use the historical method.
2. The student can better understand history because he sees it in its origin.
3. New interest may be added by pilgrimages.
4. Junior historical clubs will add new historical documents to brighten up the story of the past.
5. Through more activity we can build a new interest in the subject.

II. LOCAL MANUSCRIPT COLLECTIONS

THE social studies teachers of America can render a great service to the scholars and writers in the social sciences by assisting in the location of important manuscript materials that

should be preserved for the study of American life. At the same time they can greatly enrich the experiences of their students by the use of such materials in the classroom. The manuscript materials that should be preserved in the archives of libraries and manuscript collections are the letters, diaries, account books, minute books of banks, churches, educational institutions, and all other original records of social, economic, and political organizations. Much of this material has been collected and preserved, but a great deal more of it has been thrown away and burned. The destruction is going on at a rapid rate. However, many old homes, business houses, attics, and store rooms still have interesting and important manuscript collections.

The historical societies, university libraries, and other centers of research are the proper places for the preservation of such materials. They are the centers of research. If richer and more interesting history is to be written it will be because the cultural resources of the nation are deposited in a place where they are secure and where they can be classified and used.

The University of Missouri Library has embarked on a project of creating a manuscript division that will preserve the historical resources of the state and the region of which it is a part. The division was made possible by a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation and the Board of Curators. Francis English, associate professor in the department of history, is the director of the project. It is a plan of the sponsors to work closely with other agencies in the region in locating, collecting, and preserving manuscript materials. The collection and preservation of these important sources is too big a task for one institution alone. The co-operation of classroom teachers, local historians, and people who have preserved family papers is needed. The director solicits the help of classroom teachers and school administrators in this work.

For a community, thus severed entirely from the past and devoted completely to its own immediate concerns, would soon revert to a state of savagery, perhaps in a single generation. Without government or church or business, the people of this community would have to devote themselves first to obtaining food and shelter . . . a society which devotes itself exclusively to concern about the immediate present will inevitably deteriorate, whereas a society which seeks conscientiously to avail itself of the wisdom and knowledge of the past will be able to enjoy most fully the manifold conveniences, comforts, and luxury of the present. In other words, that society is most up-to-date which includes within its membership the most comprehensive knowledge of the past (A. C. Krey, *Ninth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies*, 179 f.).

Economic Institutions for the Post-War World

Francis R. Flournoy

IN A previous article,¹ the writer has described the complicated and elaborate mechanism whereby the United Nations have pooled their immense material and human resources in the conduct of the war. Thus there has grown up before our eyes an international organization which is wielding a power almost without parallel in the world's history. Though designed primarily for the winning of the war, the new agencies have necessarily assumed functions which intimately affect the lives and welfare of the civil populations throughout almost all the countries which have escaped Axis domination.

AGENCIES DURING THE FIRST WORLD WAR

THE future of this system, therefore, is a matter of great importance. We must note first in this connection the history of the organization which most closely resembles that which is now in existence—namely, the machinery created during the latter part of the last war by Great Britain, France, Italy, and the United States for economic collaboration. This consisted in a large number of Councils and Committees handling every problem which was encountered in the conduct of the war behind the battle lines. The more important of these committees were brought together to form the Inter-Allied Munitions Council and the Inter-Allied Food Council.

In the last war the United States took only a limited share in a system of collaboration already in part established when we entered the war; in this war our Government has assumed a lead-

ing role in promoting what unity of action has been achieved, and is in a sense the major integrating force in the whole group. Furthermore, our policy regarding the continuance in peacetime of the Allied mechanisms created in the last war furnishes a striking contrast with our plans for the future of the existing Combined Boards. When the Armistice came in November, 1918, there was a tremendous rush to "get back to normalcy." In our national agencies that had been established to carry on the war, the officials who had been drawn in from private business at once began to withdraw. Many simply took their hats and walked out. The temporary buildings in which they had been housed in Washington were soon deserted and were dismantled as rapidly as possible. Even more rapidly were the international agencies for the conduct of the war torn down. A few days before the Armistice in 1918 the French and British Governments made proposals for the continuance of the Inter-Allied Councils and Committees, at least during the period of reconstruction. The most important of these proposals was rejected in an emphatic manner by Mr. Hoover, the United States Food Administrator, with the concurrence of the President and the Department of State. Hoover stated furthermore that this Government would not agree to any program "that even looked like inter-Allied control of our economic resources after peace."

Further attempts to salvage the wartime mechanisms met the unyielding opposition of our Government. These agencies continued for a time to exist in an attenuated condition; but they lacked essential powers, and in spite of the protests of France the entire economic machinery was soon scrapped, the last survival of it, the Supreme Economic Council, coming to an end early in 1920, shortly after the withdrawal from it of the United States. The political and mili-

In February Dr. Flournoy described the United Nations agencies for meeting wartime economic needs. He now describes the agencies which are concerned with post-war problems of raw-materials and food supply, and of relief and rehabilitation. The author is professor of history and political science in the College of Emporia.

¹"The Economic Institutions of the United Nations," *Social Education*, VIII:71-75, February, 1944.

tary agencies of inter-Allied co-operation also began to lose their authority upon the signing of the Armistice, and the entire wartime system soon ceased to exist. Hence when the League of Nations began its real work, it was forced to build up an organization which had virtually no connection with that which had been so powerful during the war.

FUTURE OF THE EXISTING WAR AGENCIES

ALL of this suggests the strong possibility that the existing agencies of United Nations co-operation might be scrapped at the conclusion of fighting. It is, however, the avowed intention of the present Administration to adopt a totally different course. Its spokesmen, as has been pointed out in a previous number of *Social Education*,² have stated that in the creation of the new world organization which it is proposed to establish, there must be utilized as a nucleus the agencies created by the United Nations for the purpose of carrying on the present war. A strong argument for the retention of the Combined Raw Materials Board in the transition period following the conflict was made by Mr. Batt, the American member of the Board, in his first annual report. The experience after the last war showed, he said, that there is likely to be at the close of this war "a scramble by all nations for available supplies [of raw materials] in order to restore their peacetime economy," so that there will not be enough to go around and not enough shipping to carry the goods.

Such a scramble [continued Mr. Batt] can result in complete demoralization of supply, price, and other factors in a peacetime economy. It is impossible to see how such a situation can be met unless through some form of combined machinery. Existence of the Combined Raw Materials Board might contribute substantially to the solution of this important post-war problem.

The same reasoning would demand the retention of the other Combined Boards. And statements published at the time of the meeting of the UNRRA Council indicate that these Boards will be maintained for several years after the end of the war.

AGENCIES TO DEAL WITH FOOD PROBLEMS

ECONOMIC agencies more widely and directly representative of the United Nations than the Combined Boards have recently been established to deal primarily with post-war mat-

ters. Under the Wheat Agreement of July, 1942,³ there has been established an International Wheat Council composed of representatives of the United States, Argentina, Australia, New Zealand, and Great Britain. The Council is granted powers to put into effect immediately certain broad regulations regarding the control of the production of wheat, provided conditions should necessitate such measures. Since these conditions have not as yet developed, the powers in question have not been utilized.

The Council also has taken steps to accumulate 100 million bushels of wheat by the collection of designated quotas from each of the wheat-producing countries represented on the Council. This "relief pool" is to be used by the recently established United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration in feeding the countries of the war-zone upon their liberation. The other provisions of the Wheat Agreement, which are to be presented to an international conference of "the nations willing to participate which have a substantial interest in international trade in wheat," relate to long-term policies affecting the general expansion of trade, the control of the production of wheat, the management of accumulated stocks, and the problem of export and price control.

A conference of the United Nations and others associated with them—forty-four in all—met at Hot Springs in May and June, 1943, to consider the food question in its long-term aspects. The Final Act of the Conference, containing thirty-three declarations, resolutions, and recommendations, provides a program of concerted action for dealing with the various problems relative to the production and consumption of food. Most of these projects, however, can be executed only by national action. And such action in any one country except in the field of research can have only a very limited effect upon what is done by other countries. Regarding the really international problems of food and agriculture, the Conference decided that careful consideration be given to the general questions of commodity agreements and of international measures for meeting the needs of countries with inadequate supplies of food. But these problems, along with others, were referred for further study to a body created by the Conference known as the Interim Commission.

² Francis R. Flournoy, "Washington Plans a New International Organization," VI:297-300, November, 1942.

³ Francis R. Flournoy, "Washington Plans a New Economic and Social World Order," *Social Education*, VII: 14-15, January, 1943.

This body, which was established at the initiative of the United States, is composed of one representative of each of the governments participating in the Conference. It met in Washington on July 15. It chose as an Executive Committee the representatives of the United States, Great Britain, China, the Soviet Union, Brazil, Mexico, Canada, India, the Netherlands, and Yugoslavia. The chairman is a Canadian, the heads of the principal committees are a Brazilian, an Indian, and a Netherlander. The secretariat is composed of leading officials of the League of Nations and the International Labor Office, together with other experts of various nationalities. The Commission established three working committees from its own membership. In addition, it set up an Economic and Scientific Panel, composed of leading experts from various countries.

One of the first acts of the Commission was to draw up and submit to the governments of the United Nations a declaration in which each would promise to "collaborate in raising standards of nutrition and standards of living of their people and to report to one another on the progress achieved." The Commission is also preparing the draft of an agreement for the establishment of a permanent organization on food and agriculture. This "institute," in the words of Assistant Secretary of State Acheson, will "bring together all the various international agencies working in the field of food and agriculture" and will "supersede some of those which are now under the control of the enemy, such as the Rome Institute."

The Commission, in all of its plans is arranging for close co-operation with the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, the Combined Food Board, and the national agencies in this and other countries which are concerned with food and agriculture. Its work will, of course, be continued by the permanent organization when that is formed.

THE UNRRA

IN THE meantime there had been established a United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration. The Council of the Administration, its supreme policy-making body, composed of one representative from each of the constituent states, met at Atlantic City from November 10 to December 1, 1943, for the purpose of planning the work of the new agency and completing its organization. In view of the fact that the UNRRA is the first important agency so far

created by the United Nations entirely for post-war reconstruction, a somewhat full account of its functions and methods of operation, as determined by the Council, would seem to be in order.

The countries to which it was decided to extend aid are in the first place those which have been invaded and occupied as a whole or in part by the Axis forces. Aid may also be given to enemy civilians in particular areas and in particular cases with the approval of the military authorities and of the Council of the UNRRA. For such services the enemy governments must pay in full. They must also contribute to the relief of their victims in the occupied areas, and must submit to the seizure by the UNRRA of whatever supplies in their possession might be needed for relief purposes. The British, American, and Chinese representatives supported a proposal that inability to make immediate payment should not necessarily prevent the extension of relief on an emergency basis to enemy peoples. But this was blocked by the representatives of Russia, the occupied countries of Europe, and the Latin-American states.

Relief programs in any particular state must be approved by the government of that state, and the agencies of the latter are to be employed wherever possible in the distribution of supplies. This does not mean, however, that the governments-in-exile, as at present constituted, are to be able to use relief as a means of consolidating their control against the will of the populations concerned. For, according to Secretary Hull, it was decided at the Moscow Conference to recognize in the present occupied countries only such governments as might be found through plebiscites to have the support of the majority of their peoples.

The UNRRA is to obtain its supplies by application to the Combined Boards, which now control 95 percent of the food, raw materials, and manufactured goods which enter the seaborne commerce of the world. The Boards have promised close co-operation in furthering the work of the Administration, though the urgent necessities of the United Nations' armed forces, until the attainment of victory, may in some circumstances receive priority over all other claims.

The work of the UNRRA in any region may begin upon its liberation, but only at the request and under the direction of whatever authority is recognized as having control over such region. The activities of the administration are to cease in any area as soon as the more acute need

therein is met. Its whole period of work might not last more than two years. "UNRRA," said President Roosevelt on November 15, "will not . . . be expected to solve the long-range problems of reconstruction. Other machinery and other measures will be necessary for this purpose."

Hence the new agency, according to the Director General, is to proceed on the principle of bringing to those whom it is to aid only such goods and services as cannot be furnished by the peoples themselves. It will also endeavor to restore as rapidly as possible the productive capacities of these peoples so that in the shortest possible space of time they may come to rely on their own resources and efforts. For, according to Mr. Lehman, "Nations will not seek aid for a period or to an extent greater than is absolutely necessary to permit them to work out their own problems." An excellent example of Lehman's methods is to be found in the policy of the Office of Foreign Relief and Rehabilitation Operations under his direction in North Africa. Into this area food and other necessities were sent in great quantities in the early months of the Anglo-American occupation. Now as a result of the policies followed by OFRRO in this region, it is providing supplies for the Allied armies in Italy. An illustration of OFRRO's methods of stimulating production is to be found in its action in providing with great promptitude cotton cloth needed for the harvesting of the Tunisian olive crop. If this had not been furnished when needed, the crop might have been almost totally lost.

FUNCTIONS OF THE UNRRA

THE activities of UNRRA, as planned at Atlantic City, center around the problems of food, clothing, shelter, public health, and the resettlement of displaced populations. Committees studied these problems, laid down general policies for dealing with them, and made provision for their further study by branches of the permanent organization. Nutrition experts worked out programs for bringing starving and debilitated populations back to a condition of health. Projects were formulated for agricultural rehabilitation, through the furnishing of fertilizers, tools, etc., so that production might start as early as possible. Plans were formed for the collection of stockpiles of food and clothing. Pools of building materials are to be built up and military camps, barracks and huts are to be utilized as emergency dwellings for the homeless.

In dealing with the problem of health, it was decided that there be established an international "high command" to unite the health departments of all the governments concerned in a concerted attack on disease and especially on epidemics. Particular attention was given to the situation of the multitudes, especially in eastern Europe and China, who have been torn from their own homes and in many cases taken to foreign countries. The UNRRA plans to aid in the return of these people and their resettlement so far as this may be feasible.

The solution of the problem of finance was pronounced by the American member of the Council, Dean Acheson, to be one of the most outstanding achievements of the session. On the basis of figures presented by the governments of countries occupied as a whole or in part by the enemy, it was estimated that the total disbursements for goods and services that would have to be made by the UNRRA in those areas would amount to a sum between \$2,000,000,000 and \$2,500,000,000. To raise this, each of the member states in a position to do so is to appropriate an amount equal to one percent of its national income for the year ending June 30, 1943. Consequently the share of the United States was placed at about \$1,350,000,000. Only 10 percent of the quota of each country must be in the form of cash or foreign securities. The rest may be furnished in the form of goods. In the case of this country, it is apparently planned to furnish 90 percent of our quota from our own productive resources, though some other countries will probably furnish in this manner a much lower proportion.

The estimates of total needs seem astonishingly low. This is to be explained in part by the fact that the occupied countries of northern and western Europe have fairly large available liquid resources in the shape of gold and foreign securities, and they are to pay therewith for all aid given them. The enemy countries, as has been mentioned, are also to pay in a similar manner. It is nevertheless to be feared that these estimates have been deliberately scaled down, probably to avoid arousing opposition to the whole plan in this country, which as has been pointed out must assume the principal burden of furnishing aid.

ORGANIZATION OF THE UNRRA

THE Council of the UNRRA provided for the formation of a permanent organization to carry on the actual business entrusted to the agency as provided by the Agreement. There is

a Central Committee, formed before the meeting of the Council, and composed of representatives of the Big Four. In the original draft of the proposed Agreement, this Committee was to have a very large amount of authority. In the Agreement as adopted, however, this authority was markedly reduced. While the Committee is to make decisions between sessions of the Council, these are open to reconsideration by that body at its ensuing meeting. Special meetings of the Council may be called by the Central Committee or by one third of the Council members. In determining the composition of the four principal standing committees of the administration, the Council has the decisive voice rather than the Central Committee, as originally provided.

The first of these committees, the Committee on Supplies, consists of representatives from those member governments which are likely, in the judgment of the Council, to be the principal suppliers of materials for relief and reconstruction. There is also a Committee for Europe, a Committee for the Far East, and a Committee on Finance, together with technical committees to deal respectively with agriculture, displaced persons, health, industrial rehabilitation, and welfare.

The Director General of the UNRRA, who as already mentioned is former-Governor Lehman, has been granted great powers. He has practically a free hand in executing the policies laid down by the Council, except that he must transmit reports of these matters to the Central Committee and to the Council. He is removable by the Council on recommendation, by unanimous vote, of the Central Committee. In the creation of a staff to assist him he has almost unrestricted authority. He is already proceeding in the recruiting of a force of about 2,200 members, to be selected on the merit system without any discrimination on grounds of race, sex, religion, or nationality. One of the most important sources of personnel is likely to be the agents of those private associations which have already done such useful relief work in Europe. Only a minority of this force will be Americans, though the headquarters of the Administration are to be in Washington, as are those of the standing committees—except that in Europe, which is to be in London.

IN the establishment of the UNRRA the United Nations have made a good start in

building up a complex of international agencies for the accomplishment of those economic objectives which have been set forth by this government and for the most part endorsed by its allies.⁴ In the operation of this agency, a fair degree of success has been attained in solving the problem of combining the time-honored principle of equality among all states with that of the preponderance of influence which those nations now carrying the chief burden of the war ought to have. Although the Big Four, notably the United States and Great Britain, have throughout assumed leadership, the smaller states have also taken their due part and will be able, if they so desire, to play a larger role in the future. There is, of course, a danger that they may overplay their hands and attempt to exercise more authority than they have any right to possess. But so far they have not shown a tendency to follow this course. The policy of Russia has also been wise and skillful. She has not stood aloof from the work of the Administration, as it was feared she might do. Nor has she proven obstructive: when the predominant feeling among the other states has proven adverse to her proposals, she has yielded gracefully and without any apparent chagrin.

New economic agencies are no doubt soon to be established. In addition to the plan for a permanent food organization, to which reference has been made, a tentative proposal has been made by the United States Treasury for a United Nations Bank for Reconstruction and Development, with a total capitalization of ten million dollars, one-fifth to be subscribed by the United States. The British, Canadian, and American governments and the French Committee of National Liberation have published detailed projects for a system of regulating problems of currency and exchange. That several agencies to solve the "long-range problems of reconstruction" are almost certain to be created within the next few months is indicated by President Roosevelt's statement quoted on a previous page.⁵ In addition, the International Labor Organization, the International Health Organization, and probably other agencies of the League of Nations are likely to be continued with little change.

⁴ Francis R. Flounoy, "Washington Plans a New Economic and Social World Order," *Social Education*, VII: 11ff., January, 1943.

⁵ *Supra*, p. 170.

How Can Teachers Help Write The Peace?

Mark F. Emerson

NEVER in the history of our profession has there been an opportunity for such vital service as exists now. This may sound extravagant, but there is ample and obvious basis for the claim. No one will deny either that the peace to be written after this war will be one of the most influential events of world history, or that in a democratic country teachers have an almost unlimited opportunity to help influence their country's part in this peace. How can we use this opportunity most effectively? Here is an answer, not in terms of what might be done, but in what the teachers of one state have done and are doing.

Two years ago certain teachers in New Hampshire felt very strongly that a widespread program of adult education on the problems involved in winning the peace is essential if we are to avoid making the same mistakes after this war that were made after the last one. They believed that such a program is so important a part of the war effort that they went to the State Council of Defense with a plan and a program for a Committee on Education for Post-War Problems. The approval of the Council was secured and the committee was appointed.

THE first part of the committee's program is to encourage and assist local organizations to have speakers on questions connected with the achievement of a lasting peace. To accomplish this a list has been prepared and copies sent to the program committees of every local organization in New Hampshire, with the request

that they have at least one speaker from it on their program for the season. The speakers are a representative group of influential citizens who have volunteered their services in this connection. No attempt is made to suggest what they are to say. The aim is to stimulate thought and discussion so that public opinion may clarify itself in a democratic way. The committee is in no sense a propaganda agency, but simply a clearinghouse for ideas. By working through existing organizations, and letting them make their own arrangements with the speakers, the committee is able to reach the maximum number of people with a minimum of effort.

Listening to a speaker for an hour doesn't guarantee mature thought, however, so the next part of the program is to organize continuing groups for study and discussion. The committee therefore has drawn up a simple set of suggestions as to how to start and conduct such groups, together with sets of questions for a series of six meetings and recommended readings for each session. Copies of these materials are sent to all clubs along with the list of available speakers, and the clubs are urged to set up study groups.

To give impetus to meetings and study groups a state conference on Preparedness for Winning the Peace is to be held shortly. Every local branch of Rotary, Kiwanis, the American Legion, Women's Clubs, the League of Women Voters, Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Grange, Farm Bureau, labor unions, and the various church denominations will be asked to send representatives. A speaker of national reputation will address the conference, there will be panels on different phases of winning the peace, and a program for action will be outlined for the representatives to take back to their own organizations.

Another activity is the preparation of a series of releases to the press. Outstanding leaders in various fields have been invited to write brief statements of their convictions in regard to the most effective means of attaining a just and last-

A teacher in St. Paul's School, Concord, New Hampshire, points out that the opportunities and responsibilities of teachers for advancing education on current issues—notably the post-war settlement—extend far beyond their classrooms. The program of community meetings and discussion groups in New Hampshire illustrates his point.

ing peace. These will be sent out, one each week, to the various daily and weekly papers of the state, with the request that they be given prominent publication. It is felt that opinions of our own citizens will provoke more thought and discussion than articles from outside the state.

REALIZING that many of the problems connected with the peace will not be solved for at least a generation, the committee has also carried out several projects for education relating to post-war problems in the schools. In co-operation with the State Department of Education, a unit on America's Responsibility in the Post-War World has been prepared and recommended to all the high schools of the state. At the invitation of the Department one member of the committee worked with a group of teachers to draw up a course on World Problems. This course is being tried out experimentally in a number of schools with a view to its eventual adoption as the standard twelfth-year course in social studies.

Last spring an essay contest was conducted on the same subject as the high school unit. It was open to all students in the high schools and preparatory schools of the state. The schools conducted their own preliminary contests and entered their winners in the state finals. These were held at the State Capitol, where the contestants read their papers at a public meeting presided over by the Governor. Generous prizes in war bonds and stamps were awarded, and the winner broadcast his essay over the radio.

THIS is the extent of the activities of the New Hampshire Committee on Education for Post-War Problems to date. There is nothing particularly new or unusual about any of them. The only distinction of the program is that it is a concerted statewide effort, and as far as we know nothing comparable is being done in other states. Very favorable reactions to the program have come from the regional office of O.C.D. for New England and from Washington. Copies of the plan and all the materials have been sent to the other regional and state offices.¹ However, not much is likely to come of it unless there is a demand on the part of the citizens in each state. Hence if the social studies teachers should bring their influence to bear on the Defense Councils

of the respective states, there is no reason why every state should not have such a program. However, if it is not possible to set it up as a part of the Defense Councils in some states, the teachers themselves, or in co-operation with other organizations could carry out much, if not all, of the above on their own.

The part which members of our profession have played in the New Hampshire program might be pointed out. The original idea and the initiative in having the committee set up came from social studies teachers. As a result of this, three were appointed to the committee and one of them was selected to be its executive secretary. Of the sixty names on the list of speakers, twenty-seven are those of men and women who teach social studies either on the secondary or college level. One of these addressed twenty meetings last year with a total audience of over 1500 people. In the state essay contest the preliminaries in the individual high schools were conducted in most cases by the social studies teachers. The unit which the State Department of Education recommended for use in all the high schools of the state was prepared by a teacher member of the committee, who also assisted in drawing up the outline for the course on world problems. This is not an attempt to claim undue credit for social studies teachers but to show what some of them are doing in the hope that others will go and do likewise.

If we really want to help bring about a better world after this war here is our chance. Our failure after the First World War to set up effective machinery to ensure lasting peace proved that "preparedness" for "winning the peace" is as essential as "preparedness" for winning the war. Social studies teachers are in a better position to cultivate such preparedness than any other group. The country needs what we have to offer, and needs it greatly. Nevertheless we are not going to be asked to give it. We must take the initiative ourselves, and see that adequate machinery is set up for statewide and nationwide programs of education for post-war problems. Without such organization to ensure the support of enlightened public opinion our leaders may be able to accomplish little, however intelligent and courageous they may be. What the United States does in regard to the peace may depend more on us than on anyone else. In any case we have a tremendous responsibility as well as an opportunity to help make sure that a better peace shall be written this time.

¹ Copies of the materials or any further details regarding the program may be obtained by writing the author at St. Paul's School, Concord, New Hampshire.

Ten Commandments for the Teaching of Democracy in a Nation at War

Douglas E. Lawson

THE present task of the schools in a democracy is more than that of aiding in the winning of the armed conflict. Essentially, despite some recent writings of a rather excited nature, the job of the schools now is chiefly that which it has always been—or always should have been. That is the job of continually attempting to prepare children for their ultimate responsibilities of citizenship. It is, in other words, to prepare them for the task of building a better social order of peace. *What we build into the nation in peace determines what a nation can do when crises are thrust upon it.* While the schools should do many things today in direct pursuit of the aim of winning the war, they dare not forget their first obligation to make strong and decent citizens.

Especially in the elementary and lower secondary levels, the teacher's greater efforts can better be expended in the work of building intelligent citizenship than in an attempt to make children war-conscious. They are war-conscious as it is. The elements of war are all about them—in the press, on the radio, and in the changed activities and economics of living. To plan a deliberate campaign of building war-consciousness may result in more harm than good to the young child, for it may often amount merely to the creating of restlessness, fear, and a sense of insecurity with a consequent feeling of helplessness in face of impending dangers. The results may be all of the damage that grows from neurosis, with increased juvenile delinquency and lowered efficiency in the normal processes of education.

Our public schools should, of course, re-evaluate their offerings at this time in order to elimi-

nate the last elements of non-functional subject matter. They should also now place increased stress upon health, first aid, and (in the secondary schools) the necessary background materials for vital technical skills. But the schools must not lose their ultimate vision of their chief task, which is to prepare children for social relationships which will govern the peoples inhabiting the world when peace is secured.

THIS paper does not attempt to discuss method. It proposes merely the following large objectives of teaching of which we dare not lose sight. The job is chiefly within the area of the social studies, whose goals during this age may be presented as ten commandments for the schools whose leadership looks beyond the immediate present and senses the vast problems of social reconstruction that soon will face our total civilization:

1. Teach the child to be sensitive to the rights and needs of others, with both tolerance of, and real appreciation for, the minority groups of which one is not a member or with which one is not in agreement; for only as this concept becomes operative can democracy become a way of life, a way of thinking.
2. Teach the child to understand the general nature of the more significant present-day social, civic, and political institutions of the society in which men live—including current political parties, religions, and minorities of all kinds. This task the schools have never dared undertake. Nor have they been adequately equipped for such a responsibility.
3. Build in the child the tendency to assume responsibility commensurate with his talents and understanding in all social relationships within the school, home, and neighborhood. Too often the child is denied any vital share in planning the affairs even of his home. Attitudes, as well as skills, can be developed only through practice.

This statement was presented at a meeting of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the Illinois Education Association. The author is associate professor of education in the Southern Illinois Normal University, Carbondale.

4. Build in each child the tendency to associate himself with groups organized for purposes of social betterment in one form or another.

5. Build in each child a tendency to discriminate between issues of general social welfare and issues involved merely with the welfare of selfish vested interests.

6. Give each child an appreciation of democracy as a way of life characterized by a balance between (a) the individual's essential freedom and (b) the larger welfare of humanity. It is in this balance that democracy is found. Total freedom is anarchy; total social dominance is fascism. Democracy takes a middle course to obtain control of basic sources of happiness, holding them in trust alike for every individual.

7. Give the child a tendency to assume voluntarily a share of responsibility for preserving, exemplifying, and transmitting attitudes and ideals which he believes essential to social welfare.

8. Give the child an understanding of the essential functions and contributions of democratic government and its operation both locally and nationally, as well as a tendency to discharge the political duties of good citizenship.

9. Build in each child the optimum tendency toward leadership consistent with his abilities. At least he should have the tendency to assume leadership in those situations where he believes the social welfare (or individual rights) to be jeopardized by the lack of a leadership which he feels himself capable of providing.

10. Develop in each child an essential hope and vision of a better world and a belief that eventually the democratic processes of government can bring to humanity a happier way of life and a larger abundance of security and equality of opportunity for all members of the human race, with eventual assurance that someday man shall live in peace and honor without fear of tyranny and without prejudice to social status, race, or faith.

FOR those who point out that the foregoing ultimate objectives are too visionary or idealistic, too remote or too impractical, it may be well once again to let Carl Schurz speak to a confused humanity: "Our ideals are like the stars: we never reach them but, like the mariner on the ocean, we guide our courses by them."

We are not yet clear and unanimous as to what the free way of life means. But we see some of the principles upon which it rests. We see that recognition of these principles is essential in order that our broader war aims may be attained.

One of these is the principle of earned security, the principle that all men and women should have an opportunity, thru their own exertions, to achieve mental and economic security for themselves and their children. This security is not given as charity from one person to another. It is something to be achieved. It is the *opportunity* to achieve it that must be universal, equitable, unalienable, and genuine.

Another is the principle of peaceful change. Warfare has hitherto been one of the great means of bringing about changes, sometimes highly desirable changes, in human relations. Since we propose to try to end war, we must provide some other means of bringing about constant and necessary changes thru cooperative, orderly, peaceful procedures. The only method of peaceful change that has been reasonably successful has been the method of open, cooperative discussion and action. Hence, it will be necessary to accompany any proposed peace plan with plans for the extension of freedom of discussion and teaching and for the provision of universal education.

A third principle requires the full use of science and technology in the production of wholesome goods and services. . . .

A fourth principle relates to intellectual and religious freedom. . . . In practice, this principle means free access to knowledge, untrammelled teaching, and the universal availability of educational opportunity.

In accepting some such principles as war aims, the American people would act partly from humanitarian motives and partly from self-interest. They would wish others to observe these principles, partly because it will be good for them to do so, and equally because we Americans cannot have freedom, economic well-being, security, and peace for ourselves unless other people have them too (Educational Policies Commission, *Education and the People's Peace*, 1943, 17f.).

Notes and News

St. Louis Meeting, April 22

The National Council for the Social Studies will hold a joint spring meeting with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association in St. Louis. The MVHA meetings will be held April 20-22 and further information about the entire program may be obtained from Harold W. Bradley, Stanford University, California. At a joint meeting on Friday evening, April 21, the Report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges will be discussed.

Saturday, April 22, will be devoted to a joint meeting of the NCSS and the Teachers' Section of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. This meeting is also sponsored by the Missouri and Illinois Councils for the Social Studies. At this session there will be three brief talks, followed by an open discussion, covering the topics of: "Values to be Derived from the Report, *American History in Schools and Colleges*," "Enriching the American History through Local and State History," and "Restricting Factors in the Community Encountered in Making Curriculum Adjustments." At noon there will be a luncheon meeting with a speaker and discussion. Further details and copies of the program may be obtained from Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington.

NCSS Pittsburgh Meeting

The National Council for the Social Studies will hold a one-day meeting in Pittsburgh during the first week in July, in conjunction with the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association, which will meet in Pittsburgh for the entire week. R. O. Hughes, Director of Citizenship and Social Studies, Pittsburgh Public Schools, is program chairman for this meeting of the NCSS. The program will be built around the theme of post-war adjustments in the social studies curriculum. Further details will appear in the May issue of *Social Education*.

New Contributing Members

Since the names were last listed in the February issue of *Social Education*, several additional names have been added to the roll of Contributing Members of the National Council. These

members have paid \$5 for their annual dues instead of the \$3 subscribing membership fee, although there is no difference in the privileges of such membership. The extra financial assistance is of great value to the Council in carrying out its program under wartime conditions. The following are new Contributing Members: Richard E. Thursfield, Gladys L. Smith, Morris Wolf, Ella Hawkinson, Aileen Ross, Fremont P. Wirth, Ethel M. Ray, Jay Groves, and Helen C. Phillips.

New England Association

The New England Association of Social Studies Teachers held a special meeting at Radcliffe College on March 11. The College Entrance Examination Board Social Studies Test was discussed by Henry Chauncey. "The Place of American History in the Curriculum," with special attention to the recently published report, *American History in Schools and Colleges*, was discussed by Erling M. Hunt, with comment by Elgie Clucas, principal of the Michael Driscoll School, Brookline, by Glenn W. Moon of Stamford, and by Benjamin F. Wright of the department of government at Harvard University. At the luncheon session, "The Place of History in a Liberal Education" was considered by John H. Finley of Harvard University.

The regular spring meeting will be held in Boston on May 11. The general topic will be Labor. Mark Starr will be one of the speakers.

The first issue of the *New England Social Studies Bulletin*, edited for the Association by Victor E. Pitkin of the Reading, Massachusetts, High School, appeared in February. In addition to an introductory statement and some comment on the background of the New England Association, the issue includes short articles or discussions on American history, intercultural problems, personalities in history, and education for peace. News notes, book notes, and items on other teaching materials are also included.

Geography-Science Bulletin

A monthly *Geography-Science Bulletin* was established at the Rhode Island College of Education, Providence, last October. It is issued in mimeographed form by a group of faculty editors, including J. Granville Jensen of the geography department. Articles have included "Fight-

ing Weather in Burma," "Geographic Problems of the North," and "Alcan-Northwest Passage," with "The Invasion Coast of Europe" promised for March. The *Bulletin* has included maps. It lists free and inexpensive materials, and calls attention to timely magazine articles. The *Bulletin* will be sent free to any teacher of science or geography who sends a letter of request for it.

Greater Cleveland Council

"Consumer Education" was the topic of a luncheon meeting of the Greater Cleveland Council for the Social Studies on February 26. The principal speaker was J. Cecil Parker, Chief of the Educational Services of the Office of Price Administration, who talked on "Wartime Action by the Social Studies in Consumer Education," emphasizing the need for studying the social aspects of consumer education in our schools. The chairman of the panel was William Van Til of the Consumer Education Study. Mr. Van Til, on leave from Ohio State University, spoke on the background of consumer education and present problems in this area. Participants in the panel discussion which followed were E. F. Jerfow, Head of the Department of Social Studies, John Hay High School, Cleveland; E. B. Buchanan, Chief of the Food and Drug Division of the City of Cleveland; and John Ramseyer, Assistant Director of the University School of Ohio State University. The panel dealt largely with the placement of consumer education in the school, and with present sources of information on this field of study. More than a hundred teachers and principals of the Cleveland area attended the meeting to learn more about the place of consumer education in the curriculum of the modern school. (W. V. T.)

Louisiana Division, NCSS

The Louisiana Division of the National Council for the Social Studies and the Louisiana State University jointly sponsored a conference on the social studies on March 22. The afternoon and dinner meetings were followed by an evening meeting at which Edgar B. Wesley spoke on "The Case for Basic Essentials in American History." The program was arranged by Mrs. May Lee Denham, National Council Public Relations Committeewoman for Louisiana. (M. L. D.)

Illinois

The January issue of *The Councilor*, edited for the Illinois Council by Hillis A. Staley of Decatur, includes an account of wartime adapta-

tions in social studies at the University of Chicago High School and the Teachers College High School at Charleston; a review, by Robert E. Keohane, of the controversy over the *New York Times* "test" in American history; articles on "The Intellectual Emancipation of the Negro," "The Social Studies Must Hold the Peace," and "Visual Aids in Teaching the Social Studies."

The downstate annual spring meeting was held at Decatur on February 26. The Illinois Council is one of the sponsors of the St. Louis meeting to be held April 22.

Missouri Council

The Missouri Council for the Social Studies will hold its spring meeting in St. Louis, April 22, in connection with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association and the National Council for the Social Studies. (C. E. E. H.)

Current Events

Bibliographies of articles which have appeared in *Time*, *Life*, and *Fortune* Magazines have been prepared on a number of topics of interest to social studies teachers. Currently available are lists on the following topics: "Plans for a Post-War World," "Latin America," "The American Negro," and the "Far East." Teachers may obtain these helpful reference lists (but not the original articles) on request from Miss Dorothy Bishop, Special Services, Time, Inc., 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

The Armed Forces

Service in the Armed Forces is the title of an attractive go-page bulletin prepared by the U. S. Office of Education designed to answer many of the questions of young men approaching eighteen years of age. In addition to a section dealing with general information about service in the armed forces, there are special sections on the Army, Army Air Forces, Navy, Coast Guard, Marine Corps, and the Merchant Marine. Order from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington. Price, 20 cents.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington. Contributors to this issue include May Lee Denham, Caroline E. E. Hartwig, and William Van Til.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Leonard B. Irwin

Current Affairs

Two pamphlets have recently appeared which are directed at the high school pupil's need for a better understanding of international problems. They are written by Dr. Joseph Kise, of the State Teachers College at Moorhead, Minnesota, and are entitled *This World in Which We Live* and *How the People of the World Are Governed* (Melberg Press, Moorhead, Minnesota, 20 cents each). The first of these shows the pupil the meanings of the terms *nationalism* and *internationalism*, and points out the problems which arise from too great an emphasis on the former. The foreign economic policy of this country is discussed, particularly with respect to tariffs and their effects. The second booklet offers a description of the political organizations of Britain, pre-war France, Fascist Italy, Russia, Germany, and Japan. The method used is that of an imaginary journey to each of these countries. In both booklets the style is simple and well within the grasp of any high school pupil. Glossaries of technical terms and lists of questions are provided.

My Part in Winning the War, by Elmer R. Smith, in collaboration with the Rhode Island Office of Price Administration (Hospital Trust Building, Providence. Free), is a pamphlet containing seven classroom units on the responsibilities of young people in wartime. The topics are: holding prices down, keeping production up, sharing with others, paying the costs of war, conserving needed materials, protecting the lives of others, and keeping informed about the war. Each unit consists of a brief text, followed by a list of questions and references. The style is rather hortatory, but the material is sound and well-presented. An accompanying pamphlet of questions and answers from the same source is *My Part in Winning the War: A Quiz for Schools*.

A question which has aroused considerable public interest, and was recently the subject of an article in a popular weekly magazine, is that of grade labeling. Certain members of OPA are understood to advocate elimination of brand names and the substitution of grade labeling as

the controlling factor in price determination. The subject, which is highly controversial, would seem properly to come within the scope of consumer-education courses and the social studies in the schools. The National Consumer-Retailer Council has issued four mimeographed pamphlets which advocate informative labeling, and explain the various aspects of the question, both pro and con. The present status of laws on the subject of labeling is given, and in general the information is such as to be useful to teachers and students. The pamphlets are entitled *How Informative Labels Help You Stretch Your Dollars*, *Looking at Clothing and Textile Labels*, *Federal and State Laws Affecting Labeling*, and *The Grade Labeling of Canned Fruits and Vegetables* (National Consumer-Retailer Council, Inc., 8 West 30th Street, New York. Single copies free; additional copies 10 cents).

An excellent addition to a classroom library is a portfolio of photographs entitled *Life of a Family in Russia* (East and West Association, 40 East 49th Street, New York. 50 cents). Sixteen photographs depict scenes in the daily routine of the family of a Russian collective farm director. Each picture is accompanied by a brief description, and is large enough to be suitable for bulletin-board use. The same organization also has ready for distribution similar portfolios on family life in China and India.

The Smiths and Their Wartime Budgets, by Maxwell S. Stewart (Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York. 10 cents) is one of the excellent series of Public Affairs Pamphlets. It is devoted to a discussion of the impact of rising living costs on the average income. It explains the vicious spiral leading to inflation, and describes in considerable detail the steps which the government has been taking to combat uncontrolled prices. The discussion is on a level sufficiently elementary to interest and help any high school pupil, and will be a distinct asset in aiding a teacher to explain the economic principles which govern our price system.

New Tools for Learning About War and Post-war Problems (prepared by New Tools for Learn-

ing, 280 Madison Avenue, New York. Free on request) is a guide to films, pamphlets, and recordings. It is arranged topically and is well indexed. Teachers will find this guide helpful in locating material on such broad topics as: The Meanings of Democracy, The United States at War—National Problems and Issues, The Community at War, and The United Nations.

Post-War Planning

Our Second Chance, by Charlotte Burnett Mahon (Woodrow Wilson Foundation, 8 West 40th Street, New York. Free) is an interesting little booklet which seeks to point up the parallel between the events of these days and those of 1918. The author explains in a foreword that many of our present leaders are fully aware of this parallel and are constantly urging the nation to draw upon the lessons of history to avoid the repetition of errors. The purpose of this booklet is to show, by quotations from speeches and writings of the two war periods, this recognition of "a second chance." The pamphlet is divided into such topics as the next war, economic interdependence, world organization, and international police. Under each topic are groups of quotations, paralleling those of the First World War and those of the present, thus facilitating comparison and emphasizing the parallelism of thought.

The same organization has also issued a pamphlet, *Woodrow Wilson*, containing addresses by Jan Smuts, Raymond Gram Swing, and Ray Stannard Baker on the occasion of the eighty-seventh anniversary of Wilson's birth.

On the Threshold of World Order, by Vera Micheles Dean (Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York. 25 cents) is an excellent and thorough study of the problems of the future. It has as its major thesis the absolute necessity for international organization after the war. The discussion not only touches on the future of the great powers individually, but deals particularly with such unsolved problems as colonial possessions and imperialistic controls, tariff policies, relief for backward and war-torn populations, and the role of capitalism in the new world. The treatment of these topics, while brief, is very well presented, and the pamphlet will be of great help in clarifying problems which we all need to grasp. The booklet should be of especial use to high school seniors and their teachers.

Six lectures by members of the Wayne University Faculty on the theme, "Winning the Peace,"

have been published in a pamphlet and may be obtained from the Wayne University Press, Detroit, for 25 cents. Individual lectures deal with the topics. Why We Lost the Last Peace, The Kind of a World We Want, Is World Government Possible? If the Axis Should Win the Peace, and If the People Win the Peace.

Far East

Two more booklets have appeared in the excellent series brought out co-operatively by the American Council, Institute for Pacific Relations and the Webster Publishing Company. They are *Twentieth Century India* (93 pages), by Kate Mitchell and Kumar Goshal, and *Behind the Open Door* (94 pages), by Foster Rhea Dulles. Both are popularly written but authoritative; both are generously and attractively illustrated; both have discussion questions at the end of each chapter. These booklets, like their companions on China, Japan, the China Seas, Russia, and Australasia, are welcome additions to secondary-school materials relating to the East.

A useful handbook on India is *Speaking of India*, by Miriam S. Farley (Institute of Pacific Relations, 1 East 54th Street, New York. 25 cents). In the form of questions and answers, it gives a great deal of interesting information about present conditions in India.

Miscellaneous Publications

Democracy in Trade Unions (American Civil Liberties Union, 170 Fifth Avenue, New York. 25 cents) is a survey of the degree of democratic practices found in American trade unions. It points out a number of undemocratic practices, but gives the considered judgment that most unions are reasonably democratic. Recommendations for improvement are made.

The National Opinion Research Center, University of Denver, constantly issues materials of particular interest, including reports of public-opinion polls, and distorted maps which graphically portray various political relationships. Among recent poll reports are: *The Public Looks at World Organization* (25 cents), *The Public Looks at Politics and Politicians* (10 cents), and *The Public Looks at Education* (10 cents). The maps are priced at 10 cents. Recent issues include: *Democratic and Republican Governors—1943*, *How the 531 Electoral Votes Represented American Voters in 1940*, and *Comparison of Representation in Poll Tax and Free Voting States*.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Institute for Education by Radio

The National Council for the Social Studies will join with the Institute for Education by Radio, Ohio State University, in sponsoring a series of work-study group meetings to be held at Columbus, May 4 to 8. The conference will open Thursday evening, May 4, with the regular broadcast of the Blue Network's "America's Town Meeting of the Air." Four high school students and one outstanding adult will discuss "Does Youth Want Social Security from the Cradle to the Grave?" The same students will be held over for a demonstration broadcast which will be a part of the Institute session Friday, May 5. On Saturday and Sunday work-study groups representing the members of the National Council and the Institute will discuss the utilization of the Town-Meeting technique in classroom, assemblies, and Junior Town Meeting Broadcasts. All social studies teachers interested in the problem of radio utilization are invited to be present and to participate.

Radio Notes

"American Story" presents an episode depicting some phase of life or literature of the Western hemisphere each Saturday from 7:00 to 7:30 EWT. The scripts are written by Archibald MacLeish, Librarian of Congress, for the NBC Inter-American University of the Air. The result to date has been magnificent. Your reviewer has seen listening groups composed of adults and children listen avidly to the story of the Incas, the story of exploration in the new world, and the story of the American Indian. The listeners have been especially enthusiastic in their praise of the way in which history is made to live and become real through these programs. Original narratives are cleverly woven into the drama and the whole production was proclaimed by one youngster to be more exciting than "The Lone Ranger," and besides, commented another, "You really learn something." "American Story" ranks high on our list of recommended programs. Handbooks for the series may be obtained from Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York, at 25 cents per copy.

The Junior Town Meeting League of America, an organization for the promotion of the Town-Meeting technique in classroom, assemblies, and Junior Town Meeting of the Air Broadcasts, was formed in Columbus on February 6. Representing the National Council for the Social Studies were Allen King of Cleveland, Linwood Chase of Boston, R. O. Hughes of Pittsburgh, and W. H. Hartley of Towson, Maryland. The League has issued an invitation to interested organizations to appoint representatives to the League Council. The first meeting will be held in connection with the Institute for Education by Radio at Columbus, Ohio, May 5 to 8.

Motion Picture News

Since the Encyclopaedia Britannica recently acquired Erpi Classroom Films, Inc. it has been announced that Erpi's name is to be changed to Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc. The new name, it is announced, will not materially affect the policies of the company which will continue under its old officers, who will maintain their New York headquarters.

In its February bulletin, the Indiana University Bureau of Audio-Visual Aids lists the following social studies films among the most popular in its library: *Old Glory*, *Story of Dr. Carver*, *Colonial Children*, *Children of Holland*, *Early Settlers of New England*, *Our Government*, *Children of China*, *Children of Switzerland*, *Perfect Tribute*, *Americans All*, and *Egypt—Kingdom of the Nile*.

Now is the time to order films for next year. The earlier your film order is received the better your chances of getting the film you want when you want it.

Recent 16-mm Releases

American Forest Products Industries Inc., 1319 Eighteenth Street, N.W., Washington.

Trees for Tomorrow. 2 reels, sound; free. The general importance of our renewable forests in war and in peace. Atlantic Refinery Co., Sales Promotion Dept., 260 South Broad Street, Philadelphia.

Invasion of Sicily. 1 reel, sound; free. Actual shots of the invasion.

Italy Surrenders. 1 reel, sound; free. The invasion of Italy.

News Parade—1943. 1 reel, sound; free. Highlights of the news of the year.

Bell and Howell Co., 1830 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago.

Argentine Primer. 2 reels, sound; small service charge. U. S. Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs release. Gives an overall picture of the country with special emphasis upon its advance toward industrialization.

Gateway North. 1 reel, silent; rental, \$3.00. A color film which shows the development of the new Alaska Highway. Excellent shots of British Columbia.

Brandon Films, 1600 Broadway, New York.

Black Sea Fighters. 6½ reels, sound; rental, \$15.00. The defense of the Crimea.

Day After Day. 6 reels, sound; rental, \$15.00. Complete one-day coverage of the various fronts of Russia.

One Day in Soviet Russia. 5½ reels, sound; rental, \$15.00. Factual film report of life in the U.S.S.R.

Russians at War. 6 reels, sound; rental, \$15.00. Record of the Russian war effort.

The Siege of Leningrad. 6 reels, sound; rental, \$15.00. Life within Leningrad during the Nazi siege.

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

ABCA. 1½ reels, sound; rental, apply. The work of the Army Bureau of Current Affairs which aims to keep other British soldiers informed about current happenings.

South Africa. 1 reel, sound; rental, apply. The country and its part in the war.

Castle Films Inc., RCA Building, New York.

Community Canning. 1 reel, sound; sale, apply. A U. S. Office of Education film showing community effort.

Modern Talking Picture Service, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

Time, the Servant of Man. 2 reels, sound; free. Traces the progress in the measurement of time from the sundial to the specialized time pieces of the present day.

New York University Film Library, Washington Square, New York.

The Bridge. 3 reels, sound; rental, apply. A documentary film outlining South America's position in the world today.

United Nations Information Office, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York.

The Changing Face of India. 1 reel, sound; rental, apply. How Western customs are changing India.

Inside Fighting China. 2 reels, sound; rental, apply. The Chinese war effort.

Land of My Mother. 3 reels, color, sound; rental, apply. Poland in peacetime.

Soldiers Without Uniform. 1 reel, sound; rental, apply. Australia's heavy industries.

U. S. Navy Recruiting Station. (Write to Station nearest you.)

American Sea Power. 1 reel, sound; loan. General introduction to our navy.

Eyes of the Navy. 2 reels, sound; loan. The air arm.

1500 Tons Under the Sea. 1 reel, sound; loan. The submarine service.

That Men May Fight. 1 reel, sound; loan. The story of the WAVES.

Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, 347 Madison Avenue, New York.

America Learns to Fly. 1 reel, sound; free. The training of an air cadet.

Pictures

A portfolio of pictures designed to emphasize patriotism through pictorial visualization of events and personalities which typify the spirit of America is published by Milton Bradley Company, Springfield, Massachusetts. This set of pictures, each 8½ x 11 inches, is especially suited to the primary grades. There are sixteen outline pictures in the portfolio which are useful for copying or coloring. Each bears a caption to use as the title of a story to be written or told orally. Price, postpaid, 45 cents.

Progress in Freedom is a pictorial record of what the British people have done and are doing to enrich the lives of all who live in Britain. Available free from British Information Service, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

Miniature color prints of the famous Ferris historical pictures, each 4½ x 6 inches, are obtainable from the Educational Publicity Corporation, Darien, Connecticut. The pictures include Landing of Columbus, Washington's Inauguration, Mayflower Compact, Franklin's Bookshop, and others—thirteen pictures now available. The set costs 25 cents; minimum order, 50 cents.

Miniature color prints of the Flying Fortress may be obtained for every member of the class by writing to the Educational Department, Studebaker Corporation, South Bend, Indiana.

Classroom material for teaching aviation can be obtained from the United Air Lines, School and College Service, 23 East Monroe Street, Chicago. Kits of pictures, maps, booklets, airline schedules, and the like have been prepared for primary grades, intermediate grades, and for the high school. The kits are 25 cents each.

The March issue of the *National Geographic Magazine* is a "must" for every teacher who deals with ancient or world history. In a series of 32 paintings, H. M. Herget pictures "The Glory that Was Greece." These pictures present many phases of life among the ancient Greeks. The pictures are beautifully colored, realistic in their approach, and should prove invaluable in vitalizing this phase of history. A full page of explanation, exposition, and description accompanies each picture. The same issue of the *Geographic* contains two additional articles on Greece and 23 photographs of modern Greece and its ruins.

The American Forest Products Industries, Inc., 1319 Eighteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., has published a "Bibliography of Literature and Visual Aids for the Study of Our

Forest Resources and Their Conservation." Copies may be had upon request. Two of the aids listed are especially worthy of mention. The first is a 28 x 34 inch map showing the location of America's forests. The second is a 25 x 30 inch chart showing the products of American forests. Four posters are also available: "Forests Go to War," "Good Forestry," "A Great American Crop," and "Fire—Forest Enemy No. 1."

Maps

A map-chart showing "The Races of the World and Where They Live" is published by C. S. Hammond and Company, 90 Lexington Avenue, New York. Around a map of the world are 96 pictures of the figures of peoples sculptured by Malvina Hoffman for the Field Museum of Natural History. The map-chart is mural size, 42 x 52 inches, printed on heavy ledger paper, and costs \$2.00 postpaid.

A book of interest to the map-minded teacher is *Military Maps and Air Photographs, Their Use and Interpretation*, by A. K. Lobeck and Wentworth J. Tellington (McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 West 42nd Street, New York. 256 pp. \$3.50).

The A. J. Nystrom Co., 3333 Elston Avenue, Chicago, has brought out a new "Map of the Pacific and Adjacent Countries" (No. PO-21). Designed to answer the need for a map of the Pacific war area, this map is 64 x 45 inches in size and has a scale of 230 miles to the inch. A catalog will be sent upon request.

A new "Dated Events War Map" in colors, indicating the Moscow, Teheran, and Cairo Conferences, is offered to schools by Allyn and Bacon, 50 Beacon Street, Boston, at 20 cents, postpaid. The map is 26 x 20 inches in size.

The George F. Croam Co., Inc., 730 East Washington Street, Indianapolis, has developed a U. S. Centric World Map which is claimed to be a real triumph in mathematical cartography. This map of the world in the air age is centered on the United States. Further information is contained in Bulletin CG17 which will be sent upon request.

Recordings

The Radio Corporation of America, Camden, New Jersey, recently announced an album of records containing excerpts from Walt Whitman's "Leaves of Grass" as read by the actor Ralph Bellamy. Nineteen selections are included

in the album. Such poems as "To a Certain Civilian," "For You, O Democracy," "Long, Too Long, America," and "Years of the Modern" will be found useful in social studies classes. The album, No. M955 (8 sides) lists for \$4.50. The records can be played on an ordinary record player.

Kodachromes

A set of thirty-five 2 x 2 inch Kodachrome slides called "The Cavalcade of South America" has been added to the library of the Society for Visual Education, Inc., 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago. The slides in this set give authentic glimpses into the life, customs, scenery, and architecture of our neighboring South American countries. A complete list will be furnished free upon request.

Helpful Articles

Branley, F. N. "History of Parachute Jumping," *The Grade Teacher*, LXI:16-17, March, 1944. An interesting series of pictures for use with an aviation unit.

Forsyth, Elaine. "Map Reading—Lesson VI," *Journal of Geography*, XLIII:71-75, February, 1944. One of a series of nine lessons being published by the *Journal of Geography*. This article contains helpful suggestions on teaching the Mercator map.

Friedrich, C. J. and Sternberg, E. "Congress and the Control of Radio-Broadcasting," *The American Political Science Review*, XXXVII:1014-1026, December, 1943. An excellent review of the laws on the wartime control of radio, and their administration.

Heimers, Lili. "Sources of Materials," *The Grade Teacher*, LXI:4, 6, March, 1944. A valuable list of films, pamphlets, and books on hobbies that tie in with school subjects.

Landsdowne, James D. "The Viciousness of the 'Comic Books,'" *The Journal of Education*, CXXVII:14-15, January, 1944. An attack upon the "comic books" as a vicious influence which removes the reader from the land of reality to the land of wish fulfillment.

Linstrom, Maude. "Two Essential Pieces of Equipment," *Instructor*, LIII:17, March, 1944. The place of the bulletin board and blackboard in teaching.

Michaelis, Adrian. "Radio's Challenge to the Classroom Teacher," *Journal of the AER*, III:6-7, 13. How to utilize radio's possibilities in the classroom.

Rue, Flora C. "Mexico, a Blackboard Journey," *American Childhood*, XXIX:38-39, March, 1944. A visit to Mexico for the middle grades, with blackboard sketches to illustrate scenes along the way.

Rulon, Phillip. "The Effect of Phonograph Recordings Upon Attitudes," *Harvard Educational Review*, XIV:20-37, January, 1944. Reports an experiment to determine whether use of the album of records "Then Came War" effects changes in pupils attitudes toward Hitler and the German people. Concludes that the use of these records results in statistically significant changes in attitude which is in general opposed to Hitler.

Book Reviews

THE PAGEANT OF CANADIAN HISTORY. By Anne Merriman Peck. New York: Longmans Green, 1943. Pp. xii, 370. \$3.00.

In the *Pageant of Canadian History* Mrs. Peck has most enchantingly presented a series of tableaux of Canadian life from the early pioneer days of Acadie and the St. Lawrence to twentieth century pioneer days in the vast expanses of the Far North. Hers is essentially an account of cultural movements and of people, especially of people in their mutual associations and in their adaptation to their environment.

Occasionally Mrs. Peck touches upon the political problems of Canada, where such problems have an important influence on the cultural pattern, but she frankly avoids doing so, and wisely, too. She is less secure in the political field and, through brevity, is apt to minimize or ignore distinctions in point of view, as in the period of the Rebellions of 1837, the issuance of the Durham Report, and the period of trial between the Act of Union and the Governorship of Lord Elgin. Although the political details in this section may be somewhat misrepresented, the feeling of the period is well shown, while the leading characters involved come to life with all the heat and fire of perilous and patriotic times.

Nearly the first third of the book is used to tell the tale of New France, the explorations of Cartier along the Gaspé, into the St. Lawrence and a little distance up the mysterious but gorgeously colorful Saguenay of autumn days. She details the life of the Indian tribes and their subsequent contacts with the settler followers of Cartier: nuns, Jesuit missionaries, fur trappers, peasant farmers, seigneurs. It is a vivid picture of country and people.

The reader goes exploring with Alexander MacKenzie across the continent, winning out against unbelievable obstacles of hostile Indians and the wildness of mountains and turbulent rivers. At last the Pacific! Mackenzie's exploration down the river bearing his name likewise makes an entrancing tale, especially when that area becomes the "new frontier" of the final chapters.

The expansiveness of Canada and also her sectionalism are well presented by devoting separ-

ate chapters to each of these individual and diverse areas. In the chapter on British Columbia the author emphasizes the importance of gold and lumber from pioneer days of the adventurers to the well-established beautiful cities of present-day Vancouver and Victoria. As always, the essential feature of her narrative is the human element—the people who came to explore, their struggles, their achievements and their adaptation to the more civilized environment of today.

In the same way Mrs. Peck treats of the Prairie Provinces, dwelling especially on the new type of immigrant coming there in the early twentieth century. Native customs and native arts and crafts help to enrich the entire life of the country. Their local problems, political, cultural, and economic are so different, but gradually they are forming a Canadian amalgam. The great transcontinental railroads serve to unite these diversified areas and peoples.

Mrs. Peck has made a valuable contribution to American understanding of the peoples north of the Border: their types, their environment, their economic and social problems, and their essentially national character which is Canadian. It has points of resemblance to our own but also points of difference which it would be well for us to realize.

The book is easily read, much of it comprehensible for high school age, and most certainly for college. There is a fairly adequate map. There are also many lovely photographs, a good index, and a bibliography that indicates much use of original source material.

AVALINE FOLSOM

State Teachers College
Montclair, New Jersey

A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES FOR HIGH SCHOOLS; A MODIFIED UNIT PLAN. By William Henry Yarbrough, Clarence Vernon Bruner, and Herbert French Hancox. Chicago: Laidlaw, 1943. Pp. 895. \$2.40.

This volume is a revision of the one published in 1941 by Yarbrough and Bruner. The principal changes are the addition of a summary-outline at the beginning of the book cover-

ing the period 1000 to 1943; the addition of chapters on Canada and the Far East; the re-writing of the chapter on War Propaganda; the addition of materials to bring the story up to 1943; and the combining of the unit on slavery with the one on democracy. The five units in the new text are on (1) peopling America, (2) pioneering in democracy, (3) nationalism and foreign affairs, (4) economic development, and (5) social and cultural development. Study exercises, suggested readings, and graphic and pictorial illustration are generally the same. A few maps have been added. Although the maps are not crowded with needless detail, better maps and study exercises would have helped them greatly.

The style is generally attractive and the vocabulary is well-chosen and within the experience of the student. The practice of using direct quotation of leading actors in the drama of history is continued. These are generally well-selected and are excellent devices for making movements and events clear and alive. The chapters on the Revolution and the early days of the Republic are well done. The authors keep the "how" and "why" of the period abreast of the "what."

The chapters on Jeffersonian and Jacksonian democracy do not show the same balance. Both are built around the personalities and viewpoints of the two Presidents in an interesting manner but the sweep of events and movements that were speeding the democratic process are touched too lightly. In the period since the Civil War some events and movements are largely ignored. For instance Populism, The Free Silver movement, and the Progressive Revolt receive very slight attention. Military history is almost entirely neglected.

The authors have avoided many of the pitfalls of poor interpretation that have too often been found in secondary texts. However, they accept without question the "safety valve" theory of the Westward movement (p. 138). A lack of clarity is often a more glaring defect than poor interpretation. For instance there is no indication at what time or under whose administration the XYZ affair took place (p. 393-394). Sometimes a fact is repeated in almost the same words within only a few pages (England's control of land east of Mississippi after 1763, pp. 178 and 185).

The teacher in the secondary school will find the text a satisfactory one in general. If it is used as an outline and not as the final authority on

history, it will serve as an excellent guide. This is all that can be said for any text.

W. FRANCIS ENGLISH

University of Missouri

AMERICA'S MUSICAL HERITAGE. By Cassie Burk, Virginia Meierhoffer, and Claude A. Phillips. Chicago: Laidlaw, 1942. Pp. 368. \$1.52.

AMERICANS AND THEIR SONGS. By Frank Luther. New York: Harper, 1942. Pp. xiv, 323. \$2.75.

Popular interest in music and in American folklore, ballads, songs, and composers has been growing and widening in recent years. This is attested by the number of books on musical history and appreciation, the many collections of songs and ballads, the work of the Federal Music Project and Writers Project in collecting folklore and songs, the extensive phonograph recordings, and by numerous radio programs, especially by the rapid growth and extension of that remarkable New York Station, WQXR, as well as by the inclusion of much good music of varied types in the offering of New York's municipal station, WNYC. Both these stations have repeatedly featured extensive programs of folk songs and of the work of American composers. All this activity, very much a part of our changing culture, at the same time provides us with an important body of sources for our cultural history.

What has been done in the schools? Something by the better music teachers where the administration gives them a chance, perhaps a little by alert teachers of literature, but almost nothing by the teachers of history. High school courses and textbooks give the subject little if any space and that little is nearly always ineffectively used, though college textbooks are doing more. Collaboration in the schools between teachers of history and of music might be very fruitful, not merely in broadening the field of history but by adding in both fields interest and spirit and understanding. Books that aid such correlation are welcome; two recent ones essay that role.

America's Musical Heritage seeks "to magnify the importance of music in the development of the culture of the people of America." The book was prepared by a college teacher of music and two of education for use by upper intermediate and junior high school grades. As history it is reasonably competent for its purpose, lacking adequate scholarship in American history but using some of the better material on our musical history and leaning heavily in some chapters on

John Tasker Howard's *Our American Music*, the best general account. Some good extracts from contemporary material, though included second hand (cf. pp. 30, 37, 39, 40-41, 43 with Howard, pp. 21-22, 24, 26-28, 31-32), add color and interest. Some attention given to non-English groups is commendable. There are a few minor errors and misunderstandings, for example, the implication that the Catholic Church was officially established in colonial Maryland (p. 33). The eighteen chapters are grouped by four periods of development. The style is readable, there are numerous illustrations including many songs with music, while footnotes giving definitions and pronunciation are a helpful feature, as are the lists of readings and of supplementary music materials grouped by periods and topics. Questions and suggested activities are provided. The index is well-made and full. The book is attractive and instructive for young readers.

Mr. Luther announces that his *Americans and Their Songs* "is the history of America set to music" through "a year-by-year list" of the "most popular songs Americans sang from 1620 to 1900." The project is excellent but its working out leaves a good deal to be desired. The style is at once colloquial and florid. In the opening sentence Plymouth on its first Thanksgiving Day was "drenched in the red and gold of autumn leaves." In New Netherland "big, swaggering Peter Stuyvesant . . . had an enormous head, glittering little eyes, a nose like a buccaneer," etc. Throughout the author seeks to be chatty and picturesque. As historian he is plainly an amateur, despite his assurance that "I have spent a year of my life writing this book for you" and the inclusion in a long list of acknowledgments of "researcher ———." There are errors of detail and misunderstandings of social background, with now and then a howler. For example, "This cruelty and bigotry reached a climax in Salem in 1691, when the beautiful and gifted Anne Hutchinson was banished, and many persons were imprisoned because they were ridiculously accused of being witches" (p. 25). Recalling that this famous lady was killed by Indians about a half-century before 1691 and over 200 miles away from Salem, of which she had not been a resident, and the well-known fate of nineteen of the accused witches, we cannot award that sentence a very high grade for historical accuracy. This "climax" of "a cruel, primitive generation" had serious effects on music—"by 1700 things had reached such a point that people could hardly sing together at all."

The 125 songs with music must be regarded as the book's contribution, rather than the entertaining but often unreliable text. In spite of dubious choices and the number of sentimental ditties the list includes much of what is needed in such a collection, and the chronological lists by groups at the end of the book is a useful feature, especially as there is no table of contents except a list of the songs included. The notes on songs and composers are much like the rest of the text—full of color and incident but omitting much that an alert reader wishes to know and not free of errors of detail and interpretation. It is deplorable that so desirable a project has not been supported by adequate scholarship or scholarly advice, such as Carl Sandburg, for example, was wise enough to seek and use for *The American Songbag*.

The teacher with a good knowledge of American history and suitable reference books at hand might safely use much material in *Americans and Their Songs*, much that might enliven the study of American history and literature. If time and library resources permit, some of the numerous works on song and ballad published during the past quarter century and covering regions, immigrant groups, and other classifications might be studied. For those without such resources two very recent volumes may be suggested.

Songs of American Folks by Satis N. Coleman and Adolph Bregman (New York: John Day Co., 1942. Pp. 128. \$2.25) includes forty-seven songs in nine groups, planned as a representative sampling of the folk songs that are "living reflections of the many facets of American history." For easy singing they are set in a low key, in contrast to Mr. Luther's rather high key. Introduction and notes are very brief but competent. *A Treasury of American Song* by Olin Downes and Elie Siegmeister (New York: Knopf, 1943. Pp. 412. \$5.00) is a revised and enlarged edition of a work first published in 1940, handsome in format and folio in size. It embraces nearly two hundred songs, grouped roughly in historical and geographical order to represent colonial and revolutionary times, pioneers, hillbillies, sea chanties, forty-niners, minstrels, slavery, white and Negro spirituals, southern mountains, cowboys, lumberjacks, rivermen, modern blues, etc., down to songs of the 1930's and 1940's. More verses than brief volumes usually provide are often given. There is a general Introduction with substantial shorter ones for each of the sixteen groups of songs, as well as interesting notes on particular songs. One of the authors is the well-known music

critic of the *New York Times*, the other a composer and Director of the American Ballad Singers. They have provided one of the most representative and intelligently edited collections.

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL

Johns Hopkins University

STATISTICAL ABSTRACT OF THE UNITED STATES, 1942, 64th number. Compiled under the supervision of Morris H. Hansen. Bureau of the Census, United States Department of Commerce. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943. Pp. xxvi, 1097. \$1.75.

STATISTICAL YEARBOOK OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS, 1941-42, INCLUDING ADDENDUM 1942-43. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. 279, 79. \$2.50.

The Statistical Abstract of the United States brings together a wealth of statistical data related to American history and problems. It constitutes a particularly useful reference book for classes that like to range outside the textbook but have limited library resources. In a little over a thousand pages, 992 tables give a picture of almost every phase of American life that is reducible to figures. Industry, commerce, population, religion, finance, government, education, climate, and immigration are but a few of the major sections into which the book is divided. Anyone familiar with United States Government publications is acquainted with the techniques employed in presenting this information. Graphs, however, are not used although much of the material readily lends itself to that form of presentation. An excellent index when used in conjunction with the table of contents makes it possible quickly to find all material available on any particular subject.

With each table is a footnote reference to the source. Even though governmental agencies have supplied most of the data, a 20-page bibliography indicates the liberal use of information derived from non-governmental research organizations.

The number of years for which data is presented on the various subjects is by no means uniform. While in some cases the figures go back as far as the mid-nineteenth century, the bulk of the material dates from the 1920's. Perhaps the greatest limitation upon the usefulness of this book is its inability to keep pace with the current scene. As indicated in the title, none of the figures go beyond 1942, thus failing to reflect many of the profound changes that have taken place since our entry into the war.

On a smaller and less comprehensive scale, the *Statistical Yearbook of the League of Nations* is to the world what the *Statistical Abstract* is to the United States. Of 106 tables, 74 pertain to production and consumption with the remainder being divided among territory and population, employment and unemployment, trade and finance. Because of the inherent difficulties in dealing statistically with countries having different standards of weights and measures, because of the need for liberal use of explanatory notes, and because of the parallel use of both French and English, the *Statistical Yearbook* is somewhat more difficult to use than the *Statistical Abstract*. Nevertheless, it has brought together a great deal of useful data which is brought relatively up to date by the *Addendum 1942-43*. Now that our attention is being focused more and more upon the problems of peace and reconstruction, we feel more forcibly than ever the need for factual information. For this, the *Statistical Yearbook* is an excellent source.

MANSON VAN B. JENNINGS

Army Air Force
Miami Beach

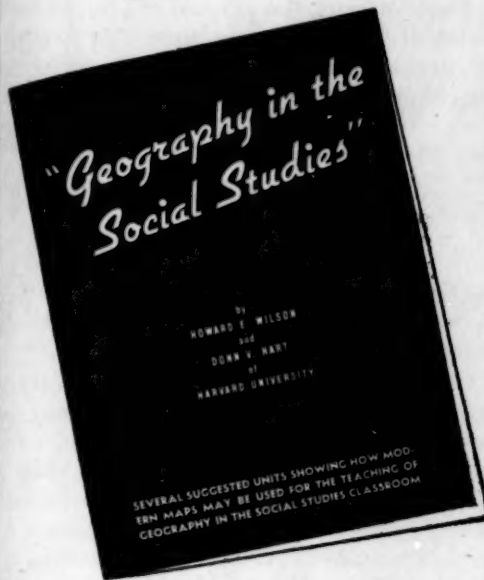
SOCIOLOGY: PRINCIPLES AND PROBLEMS. By Charles A. Ellwood. New York: American Book, 1943. Pp. viii, 408. \$1.80.

Sociology: Principles and Problems is the latest revision of the high school text first published under the title *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*, in 1910. Although the book has undergone many revisions since its first publication, the general plan of the book has changed very little. This revision includes the 1940 census data, a new chapter on the rural problem, and enlarged lists of select references and suggested activities for classroom work. Although there seems to be a decided tendency on the part of authors and publishers to attempt to make textbooks more attractive for the students, the author of this book has not been affected by this trend. No pictures, pictographs, cartoons, or illustrative material of any kind are presented.

Most of the books listed under Select References for further reading for the student are too difficult for the high school student. It would seem better to list books written for the high school age group rather than those written for college and university students.

The author gives three chapters to the discussion of the origin, forms of, and historical development of the family, with one chapter on the

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modern family. Greater emphasis on the modern family, and other social problems not discussed in the text would, again, doubtless be of more value to the high school student. Such problems as delinquency, leisure time, modern health, and personality disorganization are not discussed.

Although this text was an outstanding one when first published, it is doubtful whether the author has revised it enough throughout the years to keep it in line with present-day standards.

JUDSON T. LANDIS

Southern Illinois Normal University

POPULATION PROBLEMS, A CULTURAL INTERPRETATION. By Paul H. Landis. New York: American Book, 1942. Pp. xii, 500. \$3.75.

The preface to this interesting survey of population problems begins with a quotation from Gunnar Myrdal, eminent Swedish population authority. Referring to the importance of the factor of population in the "long-time destinies

of democracies," Myrdal observes: "Democracy, not only as a political form but with all its content of civic ideals and human life, must either solve this problem or perish" (p. v). If such be the case we have clearly neglected too long the consideration of population problems in our social studies courses. A careful reading of this volume will lead one to agree with the author that "the population factor has a direct bearing on many, in fact most, social problems; it is one of many factors that must be understood in any comprehensive analysis of many social problems" (p. 14).

Most of the data presented in this book, which is primarily intended as a college text, relate to the population of the United States considered in its world setting. Taking the position that "population phenomena have meaning only in terms of culture patterns" (p. 2), the author consistently makes his analyses within the framework of the prevailing patterns for the area under consideration. In Part I he elaborates on the limitations of naturalistic and "environmental-economic" explanations of population growth and the advantages of a sociocultural approach. Part II is de-

voted to a description of the vital processes of birth and death and related cultural forces. The discussion of sociocultural factors related to fertility leads to the conclusion that, in the urban-industrial civilization of most countries of the Western world, the birth rate falls as the level of living rises. The decline in the birth rate is attributed to a voluntary limiting of fertility. The differentials in fertility between various sociocultural groups the author prefers to explain primarily in terms of "the attitudes and motives of various social classes, their scales of values, their life objectives, and their sensitivity to different sorts of social pressure which make them behave differently as biological creatures" (p. 142). Landis is apparently less concerned with the failure of some social classes to replace themselves than he is with other problems growing out of the social selectivity of differential birth rates. He believes the chief social problem resulting from this kind of selection to be that which compels large numbers of children to be reared under conditions inconsistent with the "highest ideals of a democratic state" (p. 159).

In Part III the author treats the sex, age, and ethnic composition of the American population. The material in these chapters, together with that found in Part IV, where the distribution of the population is analyzed according to functional roles, rural-urban residence, and regions, would seem to be well suited for introduction into secondary school social problems courses. Part V provides a similarly useful treatment of the nature and extent of the problems arising from international and internal migration. The question of immigration is related to national population policy. After pointing out the character of internal migration within the United States, the author emphasizes that mobility permits an approach to a more equitable distribution of people in relation to existing resources and opportunities. However, much migration often results in serious maladjustments. There is consequently need for intelligent guidance of population movement.

In a concluding chapter, entitled "A Population Policy for the United States," Landis suggests that, if national attention is given to the problem of developing a population policy, "the control of the birth rate will be a focal point of attack" (p. 463). He restates a position taken in earlier pages, namely, that the present economic handicap to the family with children should be removed. Any program designed to accomplish such a purpose must necessarily give considerable

attention, in rural as well as urban areas, to such matters as medical care, diet, education, and housing.

The book is well equipped with graphic representations of data, together with a wide variety of supplementary references. The style is one which should attract the general reader as well as the student. With some guidance able twelfth-grade students could profitably use the material of many chapters.

KENNETH J. REHAGE

Laboratory Schools
University of Chicago

CONCERNING JUVENILE DELINQUENCY. By Henry W. Thurston. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. x, 236. \$2.75.

Mr. Thurston has divided his book into three parts and two appendices. In the first part he discusses delinquencies and their causes. In the first chapter he cites cases, the first being that of boys throwing stones at passing automobiles and progressing until he shows several instances of murder committed by youths. This chapter is aptly headed "From Mischief to Murder."

The second chapter is cleverly written in the style of a forum discussion of causes with himself as chairman asking the leading questions. Here he quotes excerpts from speeches, articles, or books written by such authorities in their respective fields as Dr. and Mrs. Glueck, Dr. Homey, Dr. William Healy, Dr. David Levy, Mrs. Marjorie Bell, Dr. Thrasher, Judge Cabot, and many others.

The second part of his book gives a brief history of the treatment of children in courts and the gradual movement toward a juvenile court, most of which is done by describing individual cases. This method is also used in portraying the detention homes and jails in various parts of the country.

Mr. Thurston was appointed chief probation officer of the Chicago court in 1905, at which time little was known about social service work, psychology, or any of the interrelated background for a probation officer. He tells of his experiences and the progress that has been made.

Part III, "Treatment in the Community," deals with agencies other than the court and how they should be co-ordinated for the prevention of delinquency. The co-operation of citizens, social workers, public officials, recreational directors, leaders of youth organizations, and religious and

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educational leaders can be a great power of influence for good.

Mr. Mayo, president of the Child Welfare League of America and dean of the School of Applied Social Science at Western Reserve University, wrote Chapter XIII on "The Gist of Juvenile Delinquency as a Community Problem." In this chapter he, too, shows the need of community planning in the prevention of delinquency. In Appendix A, Mr. Thurston cites cases of bad adult examples, and in Appendix B he shows how adult examples affect youth.

In this book Mr. Thurston not only expresses his opinions, but also those of others distinguished in this and interrelated fields. In this respect alone it is of value as a reference book in the study of delinquency. The scope of the book is so broad that in many instances the author can not deal adequately with the subject, but mentions many excellent references for a more detailed knowledge, especially in part three, dealing with co-ordinating councils.

PAUL BUSEY

Bloom Township High School
Chicago Heights

THE CULT OF UNCERTAINTY. By I. L. Kandel.
New York: Macmillan, 1943. Pp. x, 129. \$1.50.

In a slender but intellectually capacious volume, the fifteenth in the Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series, Dr. Kandel brings into the spotlight of searching criticism many of the educational theories that stem from pragmatism, or, as it is called in these lectures, "the philosophy of precariousness." Throughout the discussion the author addresses himself to the question, is "the source of ideals and values by which men live" to be found in the experience of the individual or the experience of the race? Those who hold that the source of these ideals and values is the experience of the individual are designated as adherents of the "Cult of Uncertainty." They have little or no regard for the racial heritage—"the founded capital of civilization"—; they discount past experience in favor of the contemporary and the local; the more extreme of them insist that nothing be "fixed-in-advance" lest they impose on the rights of children in a democracy; they look upon the systematic acquisition of knowledge as the commitment to memory of "mere facts"; they throw knowledge into the

discard unless and until it can be made "functional" in the solution of some immediate problem; they oppose "the logical organization of subjects which man has devised as tools for his survival"; they insist, in extreme instances, that the school be built on the interests, drives, and felt needs of children in their day-by-day relationships; they have accepted a theory of growth that has "resulted in nihilism and anti-intellectualism"; and they worship at the altar of precariousness and would have the school assume an important role in social engineering. In short, followers of the cult of uncertainty have proceeded as though social evolution begins *de novo* with each individual and on the theory that if boys and girls were freed from the trammels of race experience and permitted to pursue their own interests and satisfy their own felt needs and drives, they would develop into integrated personalities competent to solve the problems of a precarious world.

The attack on inherited culture and "external verities" as the essential substance of educative experience has centered successively in the child-centered school, the new social order, and the community-centered school. Members of the "cult" are like men who build new houses but never live in them; they move on from one position to another oblivious to the fundamental contradictions inherent in each new position. The result is an education that is rootless and devoid of core values, of any great ethical imperatives.

Professor Kandel urges a return to humanism, to reason, to "eternal verities." The meaning of these terms he makes none too clear, but apparently he has in mind an educational program grounded on human experience in all its depth and sweep as it has guided the actions of mankind through the ages.

One's reaction to these lectures will depend on the school of thought to which one belongs. Devotees of the "cult" will no doubt insist that their position has been misinterpreted. They should, however, have the patience to recall that defenders of the inherited culture have often had good reason to feel the same way. The present writer is by no means in complete agreement with all that Dr. Kandel says but he believes that these lectures are both timely and significant. They should be read patiently, carefully, and critically by all who are seeking a better program of education for American youth.

NEWTON EDWARDS

University of Chicago

CHILDREN OBJECT. By Sara Holbrook. New York: Viking, 1943. Pp. 197. \$2.00.

GROUP EXPERIENCE—THE DEMOCRATIC WAY. By Bernice Baxter and Rosalind Cassidy. New York: Harper, 1943. Pp. ix, 218. \$2.50.

If you wish to read an exuberant book; one brimming with enthusiasm; one exuding confidence and purpose, read *Children Object*. Clearly, this account of the Youthbuilders, a youth movement of the New York public schools, is written by a person on the actual firing line.

The program of the Youthbuilders exemplifies the democratic philosophy of youth participation which otherwise is paid lip service so widely and exclusively. These youth tackled the Nazi "Gleichschaltung," the race problem, the provision of adequate recreation facilities for a crowded area, outwitted the Communist Front, and advocated a post-war rehabilitation plan. Such a program with its highly controversial issues, its ambitious goals, its vigorous airing, even its clash of opinions is likely to leave one feeling that the typical school-council program in which lost-and-found bureaus are operated, or halls patrolled are somewhat insipid, and wasteful of time.

Significantly, Mrs. Holbrook makes not a single mention of a "constitution" or "methods of representation," but discusses strategy of organization and management, the earnestness, sincerity, and maturity of youth, the importance of tackling actual existing problems, and the importance of adults learning with children.

The reason for the failure of so many student participation programs can be read between the lines of *Children Object*. They are the lack of breadth in understanding and philosophy of adult leaders; the concentration upon minutiae; the lack of faith in youth; lack of enthusiasm and a flagging spirit; the indefiniteness of goals; and the belief that education is a passive process. These failures are thrown into relief by the manner in which their converse is written into every chapter of *Children Object*.

One feels that this book is more a story of Mrs. Holbrook than it is a story of the Youthbuilders. She writes: "It seems that Youthbuilders' youngsters get reform in their blood" (p. 63). One wonders if it isn't that someone with reform in his blood hasn't got hold of Youthbuilders' youngsters. This feeling is heightened to the point of criticism when Mrs. Holbrook seems to be using the book, if not Youthbuilders, to put across her own ideas. This feeling becomes

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especially strong in Chapters 3, "Communists and Innocents," and 8, "Rebuilding the World."

Group Experience—the Democratic Way describes face-to-face situations in which democratic techniques have been developed. The inclusion of situations involving adults adds interest and conviction to the work. The story of democracy at work in block organization under the civilian defense programs heartens me. Perhaps the war has the possibilities of actually strengthening democracy.

The basic concepts of democracy are better and more fully worked out in this book than in *Children Object*. In *Group Experience* the interaction of each member of the group with all others, with other groups, and with the total environment is brought home again and again. In *Children Object* the children seem too much isolated and set off from the rest of their immediate environment.

The authors properly conceive of the democratic person as a psychologically well-adjusted person. "The insecure and deprived personality has not the basic requisites for full and free belief in others and for identification with their

problems and needs" (p. 3). At different points they stress the danger to democratic processes of the inadequate personality, the temperamental individual, and the need for "general integrity of personality and consistency of behavior." From this book one realizes what a challenging and demanding concept, in terms of character and personality, democracy is.

The book is well documented and provides considerable source material and references for persons wishing to study the problems of democratic leadership.

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BASIC SOCIAL-SCIENCE SKILLS: FINDING, EVALUATING, AND USING INFORMATION. By J. Wayne Wrightstone, Dorothy Leggitt, and Seerley Reid. New York: Holt, 1943. Pp. x, 181. \$1.20. With PRACTICE AND SELF-RATING EXERCISES, pp. 118, \$.48; also ANSWERS, pp. 20.

According to the preface this handy volume is intended as a "guide to self-instruction." While

it might also be adapted for use as textbook for class lessons on skills, its avowed purpose is to serve the more self-dependent student of "the modern progressive secondary school." The student will find here some generally clear-cut explanations and examples to help him remedy shortcomings of which his current work may have made him aware, and also to open his mind to some remediable faults of which he may not have been particularly conscious. The level for best use would appear to be senior high school, with a content range from some refinements rather mature and academic in interest down to rather elemental matters on some points.

One might quarrel a bit with the title, which needs to be interpreted with much more emphasis on "basic" than on "social-science." The skills covered and the examples used suggest the joint responsibilities of the English department and the various content fields, rather than especially the social studies. The emphasis on social-science content is more noticeable in the exercise book than in the main volume. The exercise items, which are chiefly in the usual objective-test forms, bulk large in variety of coverage, but do not provide for test and retest of progress except in a very few of the nearly one hundred parts.

The six chapters deal successively with finding, understanding, judging, organizing, and presenting information, and (in a disappointingly brief closing chapter) living in the classroom. The topics most largely covered are the use of books and libraries, reading, written work, and several aspects of the now popular field of "critical thinking." Maps and graphs, observing and listening, and oral activities are included more briefly.

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